The Nation

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The Week

Our American income-tax comes full seventy-one years after the imposition of the British tax in 1842. Sir Robert Peel turned to this expedient for raising revenue when he, too, was engaged in lowering the highest tariff from which England ever suffered, and wished to substitute direct for indirect taxation. The elaborate and unscientific British tariff of 1842 had come about, not like our own, as the result of deliberate manufacturing control of parties and legislation, but, as Mr. George Trevelyan points out in his new Life of John Bright, had "grown by men's negligence rather than been built up by their design." The heavy Whig duties on a thousand different articles had steadily produced deficits. But if the parallel is not exact here, we may at least hope that the consequences of Sir Robert Peel's radical revision—a vast expansion of England's foreign trade—will soon be duplicated in this country, now that the Underwood tariff is in force. Within four years, that is, by 1846, Peel was able to boast that "notwithstanding the hostile tariffs of foreign countries, the declared value of British exports has increased above ten million pounds." From the $285,000,000 of 1846 of which Peel was so proud, under the system of free trade, this same British export business had grown to $2,400,000,000 in 1912. Trade has greatly enlarged in protective countries, too, but the point is that it has gone on conquering under free trade in England, despite cocksure assertions that it could not.

The Progressive jubilations at Roosevelt's farewell dinner were scarcely marred by the fact that the Colonel's publicity agents gave out the wrong speech to the press. What though his followers knew that some one had blundered? Theirs not to reason why; theirs but to vote and die. It is undoubtedly inconvenient to have so many speeches on tap that a secretary mixes them up. Mr. Roosevelt explains that the passages attacking President Wilson and ex-President Taft, and showing how high a hand he himself would take with Mexico and South America, were intended for delivery on some other occasion. What occasion he does not specify. Presumably, not until after his return from South America. We know how forehanded he is, and it may be that the speech which unluckily leaked out is one that he had prepared for delivery when he lands at the Battery six months from now. As for what he said to the banqueters speeding him on his way, we think that the more critical among them might feel that he doth protest too much. He will "never" abandon them. He will fight to the last gasp for their sacred principles. But this would not be inconsistent with a purpose to carry them and their sacred principles, bag and baggage, over to the Republican party in 1916.

All these political speculations, with the unhappy controversies in which Mr. Roosevelt has been engaged, we believe that the great majority of his countrymen would like to drop into the ocean as they say good-by to him. They would prefer to think of him merely as an engaging and outstanding personality. His energy and versatility, his passion for activity, his gluttony for work, his varied and insatiate interest—these qualities of his continue to kindle general admiration. All Americans wish the Colonel well on his latest trip. Whether addressing universities or exploring tropic jungles, they feel sure that he will know the stern joy of a full life and will be an active and impressive figure to all who behold him.

Now it is the ever-faithful Jacob Riis who says that his beloved Colonel may be nominated by the Republicans in 1916. But this is, of course, on condition that the Republican party accept the Progressive principles. They must be "swallowed, neck and crop," declares Mr. Riis, or else Mr. Roosevelt will allow no Republicans to vote for him. To have to swallow the whole Progressive platform might seem like a large order. But parties know why a marciful Providence fashioned them holler. Even the Progressives may be capable of great feats in the swallowing lines. Their performance in bolting the whole protective tariff, after all their outcries against it, would show that they possess a vast hollow interior into which all kinds of queer things may be ingurgitated without filling it up.

It is no wonder that President Wilson feels concerned over the two serious breaches in the merit system which are now threatened as the result of Congressional action. One of them, while apparently affecting only the new appointees needed in connection with the just-instituted income tax, is in reality a menace to the entire classified service in the Bureau of Internal Revenue. The Civil Service Reform League points out that this is brought about by a clause inserted in the tariff bill at a very late stage, the change apparently attracting no notice. The other attack on the merit system is the amendment which the Senate has tacked on to the Urgent Deficiency bill, taking deputy marshals and deputy collectors of internal revenue out of the classified service. The United States Civil Service Commission, so far from having recommended or endorsed this step, as at first reported in Washington dispatches, officially states that it "is opposed to any such action." It is in President Wilson's power to defend the merit system against both attacks. There is the more reason to hope that he will do so, because of the reported intention of Postmaster-General Burleson to urge, with his approval, the covering of the second-class and third-class postmasterships into the classified service. But Woodrow Wilson's antecedents ought to be, in themselves, sufficient guarantee that he will do his full duty in any question involving the integrity of the merit system.

In Tammany district-leader circles there is much uneasiness as to the effect of the Sulzer trial upon the municipal election in New York. The district leaders are only giving recognition to what is a matter of common knowledge. Pro-Sulzer sentiment is anti-Tammany sentiment, but without the impeachment such sentiment would not have crystallized. By Murphy's astute advisers this result must surely have been foreseen. What, therefore, can have been the motive that impelled Murphy

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to set the impeachment machinery in motion at such heavy risk to himself? One can hardly believe that Sulzer's efforts in behalf of the direct primary are sufficient explanation. Serious as the menace of a direct primary might be to the Tammany boss, it was a danger that could be faced and surmounted. It was not an immediate danger in point of time; whereas the Mayoralty election is close at hand. Nor is Tammany's disappointment over her failure to seize the Highways Department a sufficient reason. The venom and desperation that inspired Sulzer's impeachment seem best capable of explanation by the presence of a serious, immediate, personal danger, as if some of Tammany's hign servitors found themselves facing the fate of ex-Senator Stilwell. Then, too, it was natural for Tammany men to resent Sulzer's "going back on" them. They could stand attack by a "silk-stocking," but for one of their own kind to assume superior airs was too much.

A little more than a year ago, Pennsylvania Republicans held a Presidential primary in which the Flinn-Roosevelt adherents triumphed with a great noise. Now, with hardly a squeak, the Penrose element reassumes control. A political crime, you say, committed when honest men were in their beds. Not at all. The new State Committee, which last week elected an organization Republican as chairman, is the first to be chosen under the new direct primary law. The worst of it is that this blow at the Progressive party is only one of a series which began very soon after the defeat of last November. It is really too bad to lose the Keystone State, but as Mr. Munsey's Baltimore *News* confessed the other day about the chances in Maryland, moral victories are all that the party can expect just now. Anyway, what difference does it make in Pennsylvania? Is not the great issue the destruction of industry which the new tariff is sure to cause? And cannot Penrose voice the sentiment of a Pennsylvania Progressive upon this point as well as Flinn? The detailed analysis which he made in Washington of the injuries which are about to be inflicted upon his beloved State in the name of tariff reform would have the approval of every Republican faction in Pennsylvania. Touch the sacred edifice of protection, and the most advanced Progressive automatically becomes a standpatter.

Another attempt to get the people to rule has failed. By a "unique arrangement," any person attending the State Progressive Convention of Massachusetts on Monday was entitled to offer planks for the platform. There was to be no domination by the Committee on Resolutions. The wisdom of the humblest was to receive the same consideration as that of the most powerful. Yet what happened? Twelve amendments to the report of the Committee on Resolutions were presented, some of them by persons in the gallery who were not delegates. But in the end they were all voted down. What can be the explanation of so tragic an event? Surely no one will contend that there is more political virtue in a committee than in the whole body of the people. Nor can it be possible that a Progressive Convention would have more respect for a committee report than for a suggestion from the gallery. The thing is a mystery, and very unfortunate. It will be seized upon to confirm the unthinking in their respect for the pronouncements of small, carefully chosen bodies. What the country had a right to expect from the Massachusetts Progressives was the framing of a platform in open convention without the assistance of what Mr. Roosevelt a year ago was caustically terming "a small representative class."

One thing can be said in favor of the bill designating the first Sunday in June of each year as Fathers' Day: it does not create any new holidays. But is it really necessary to proclaim in so formal a fashion father's decline from his former high estate? Until our own era, his supremacy was taken as a matter of course. There was no Fathers' Day in Greece or Rome. The head of a household needed no rose in his buttonhole to tell him that he was what he was. Grant that his abuse of power justified the abdication which in our own time has been forced upon him; is it generous to compel him to label himself one day in every year? Why should he be dragged from that obscurity which was once the shelter of his wife and daughters into the fierce light that now beats upon them? It may very well be true that, as those behind the bill urge, he needs encouragement. But surely his spirit is not yet so broken as to make him welcome attentions more suited to the hospital than the counting-room. Besides, the wearing of a rose is now superfluous. The income-tax law will provide all the identification that the ordinary father will require.

A recent event in this city will doubtless revive talk about the folly of turning a boy loose in college with unlimited money at command. The curse of it and the temptation of it are obvious, and always have been. But a good deal, after all, depends upon the boy. Plenty of young fellows carry their wealth, as O'Connell hoped the noble lord would his liquor, easily. Nor are all undergraduate roisterers and profligates the scions of millionaires. Aping the habits of the gilded rich can be and is done on a very little money and very big debts. If the root of all evils could be dug out of college life, youth would still have its diseases to run through. And it would continue indifferent or incredulous under solemn preaching about the viciousness of vice. There might be a little hope of success, however, in a sensible man's trying to get it into the heads of reckless college boys that they are making a great mistake in their notion of "fun." It has been the saving of many an impetuous young man to discover that there is no fun in this world equal to doing good honest work and to preparing himself for it.

To Forbes-Robertson, the richly gifted interpreter of Hamlet, has come popular and official recognition as the greatest of living actors on the Anglo-Saxon stage. But it is not his Hamlet that has brought Forbes-Robertson the pecuniary success which enables him to announce his approaching retirement with a very handsome competency. This eminent actor might still be looking forward to a future of indefinite promise from the worldly point of view, if not for "The Passing of the Third Floor Back," a rather shoddy piece of dramaturgic art that probably would never have won the enormous popular success if the way to the public's heart had not been prepared by "The Servant in the House." It is a sign of the master that he does even the smallest thing well, and Forbes-Robertson invested the artificial and wooden rôle of The Stranger with poetic grace and dignity. Yet on

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the whole the world has probably lost more than it has gained by the years that our most eminent tragedian was compelled to spend away from his proper field.

Governor-General Harrison's entry upon his duties in the Philippines was signalized by a statement of the intentions of the United States towards the people of the islands which cannot have failed to give solid satisfaction to all sober and patriotic Filipinos. The outline of our programme of policy presented by Mr. Harrison conveyed the instructions of the Government at Washington. One definite step towards independence is distinctly announced, that of giving the native element a majority of the seats in the appointive Commission, the upper branch of the Legislature; and while the limitations imposed by the exercise of necessary caution are emphatically indicated, the pledge of ultimate independence is made more strongly than ever before. The words added by Mr. Harrison on his own account were admirable both in purpose and in expression. They recognized the completeness of our responsibility for the Philippine experiment, and the consequent necessity for "unremitting recognition of our sovereignty" while it is in the present formative stage; and at the same time they breathed a spirit of the most earnest hope that the people of the Philippines will give convincing evidence of their fitness to take over the government.

Dr. Stephen S. Wise, in the first of his lectures in this city on his experiences in the Holy Land, draws a very sombre picture of life among the Jewish population of Jerusalem. There is probably no exaggeration in the picture, but by leaving out of account the new phase of Jewish activity in Palestine, namely, that concerned with the development of a Jewish agricultural class, Dr. Wise may be in danger of giving a wrong impression of the general outlook in Palestine. Long before the Zionist movement took shape, there set in a heavy Jewish immigration towards the Holy City. The impulse was exclusively religious. The pilgrims were men and women beyond the prime of life who were actuated by the sole desire to spend their last years in the historic cradle of their race. For the most part, they came without capital and without assured means of support. The result has been such poverty and destitution as Dr. Wise describes. The other side of the picture is presented by the gratifying progress that has been made in the establishment of Jewish agricultural colonies, away from the large cities, under the auspices of various philanthropic agencies. According to competent observers, the degree of success attained in this direction is such as to insure the ultimate establishment of a Jewish population quite distinct from the Jewish community in Jerusalem.

Whatever may be Mr. Pindell's future in St. Petersburg, he leaves one record in Peoria that does him honor. "For twenty-five years," he declares, "I have been non-partisan in my support of judicial candidates, and I do not intend to change now." For the editor of a partisan newspaper, this attitude is notable. In the present instance, it is all the more so because it is maintained in the face of Gov. Dunne. A special election has been called in the Peoria district, at which a judge of the Illinois Supreme court is to be chosen. Despite Gov. Dunne's experience as a judge, and his knowledge of the unfortunate consequences that have followed the injection of partisanship into judicial elections, he has formally advised every Democrat and every Democratic newspaper in the district to support the Democratic nominee, although his opponent is being supported not only by independent voters, but by party men of the type of Mr. Pindell. It is to President Wilson's credit that he ignored the representations in this matter made to him by Mr. Pindell's enemies. What is needed is legislation that will take judicial nominations and elections out of politics. A bill to that end was defeated in the last session of the Legislature, partly by friends of Gov. Dunne.

The German Imperial Athletic Commission has come and seen and been conquered. Our skyscrapers are not more impressive than our athletes. Marvellous as were the stories about them that had reached the Old World, they did not tell half of the truth. What our visitors saw was a whole nation in training, inspired by athletic ambitions from the cradle to the grave. In sad contrast with this lively scene is the picture of still life which the Fatherland presents. Athletics of a sort are practiced, of course. The *Turnverein* is not a thing of yesterday, and the German army is not made up of men who do not know a dumb-bell from an Indian club. There are competitions, and those who excel in them are not without their reward. But how pale is all this beside the American way of doing it! No training table, apparatus in "some of our schools" only, no athletic instructor, no coach, no feverish forecasting of the outcome of to-morrow's contest between ancient rivals, no gigantic headlines in sporting pages reeking with figures and pictures. Is this the people, we ask in surprise, that "took" Alsace-Lorraine in six weeks and is the bogie of a nation so devoted to sport as England?

But such a question belongs to yesterday. From scorn and pity, the Old World is turning to admiration and emulation. Our famous coaches are taken over to wake up the youth of Europe and to organize victory upon this neglected battlefield. The name of Kraenzlein, a mighty one to conjure with, is now that of Germany's athletic field-marshal. For another Olympic contest approaches, and the United States cannot be allowed to win by virtual default. Neither national self-esteem nor international jealousy can stand in the way of submitting to the system that has brought the New World Power to the top of the athletic ladder. Sport for gentlemen was all very well once, but this is the twentieth century, in which sport is an activity for warriors. In this respect, Europe is to be made over according to plans drawn by America. Doubtless this is as it should be. Yet is there any reason why we should not take as well as give? While we are teaching Germany how to fight her way into and through the finals at Berlin in 1916, may we not develop an appreciation for a method of athletics that does not make most persons mere spectators? Our Rhodes scholars are greatly disturbed at seeing Oxford students performing various athletic feats in the absence of an audience. It strikes them as unnatural and a waste of energy. Would it really do us any harm to form the habit of walking and running and jumping with no organized cheering ringing in our ears, and without feeling the fate of empire resting upon us?

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POLITICAL DISCOUNTING.

It is not only in Wall Street that future events are "discounted." We have just now an illustration of this in the enactment of a new tariff. Viewed in itself, viewed historically, viewed politically, this is an event of capital significance. We may be sure that it will bulk large in the political history of this year. Yet at the moment it passes almost unperceived. We have known for weeks that it was coming. It has come. So why bother about it? All Americans are like Metternich in this respect, that they say it is with to-morrow that their spirits wrestle. What takes place to-day is over and done with.

This gradual accustoming of the public to a great politico-economic change has its distinct advantages. It diminishes friction and avoids shock. If the bill which President Wilson signed had been suddenly imposed upon the country, as by imperial ukase, it would have caused acute excitement. But the six months of debate have got all the details fully and slowly before the public mind; to what is unusual in them people have become reconciled or, at least, habituated; and now all passes off quietly. The result had been so long and so thoroughly discounted that we are scarcely aware that its coming makes any difference. In this view of the matter, the long delays by the Senate, time-wasting and exasperating as they have often seemed, have not been without their compensating value. They have made it the simpler and the easier for the United States to glide from one tariff law to another.

It is obvious, however, that this familiarity with an epoch-making piece of legislation may tend to breed contempt. That is to say, in judging the end we incline to forget the means; in contemplating the triumph we are tempted to ignore the precedent struggle. The final passage of the tariff bill seemed ridiculously facile. The opposition fell down like a house of cards. It looked as if the whole appearance of a bitter and dubious contest was deceptive. And it may be that a great many careless Americans, observing the ease of the last stages, may be disposed to hold the achievement light. "Why," they will say, "anybody could have got the tariff through Congress. It was as easy as falling off a log."

In fact, however, as everybody who stops to think knows perfectly, it was tremendously hard. Incessant labor, unflagging vigilance, inflexible resolution were required in the making of the new tariff. It was no mock combat. The most powerful forces were aligned to bring about certain changes in the bill, or to defeat certain provisions of it, and somewhere there had to be the watchfulness and the determination to meet and defeat them. Where this resisting power, along with the dynamic driving force behind the bill, was placed, there is universal agreement. Both friends and enemies of the new tariff know that, but for the steady push and the unyielding purpose of the President, the bill could never have been passed in the form in which it finally became law. It was the college professor transferred to the White House who brought to bear upon Congress a conviction too clear and a will too strong to be withstood. And this is the event, so appealing in its personal bearings, so big with consequences to the nation, that we pass by almost without notice simply because it has been "discounted in advance"!

This, however, is but the feeling or the attitude of the passing day. The country is not really so indifferent as it pretends to be. In its heart, it is entirely aware of what has taken place. It knows that it stands to-day in the presence of a completed fiscal and political revolution. The people, as was maintained by Madame de Sévigné, are *ni fou, ni sot;* and we may be confident that they have a sufficiently just idea of the importance of the political history that is made under their very eyes. This does not mean that they will keep on talking about it. It is a wholesome instinct by which we drop the mastered task and pass on to the next lesson. But even it there are no public rejoicings over the first great achievement of the new Administration, we may rest assured that multitudes of Americans will glow with quiet satisfaction at this beginning of fulfilled pledges, and argue from it high hope as regards what remains to be done.

LABOR AND LAW.

The letters sent by Gov. Foss to officers of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Enginemen and Firemen, at New Haven, assert with unusual force and impressiveness the old doctrine of the limits which the community must insist upon setting to the right of railway employees to strike. Just in what way that limitation is to be enforced in the end, is a difficult question to decide; meanwhile the most has to be made of the appeal to the good sense of the railway workers on the one hand and to public opinion on the other. Gov. Foss first pointed out the tremendous stake that the public has in the question of a strike, irrespective of the causes leading to it, and he then proceeded to utter a few strong words on the merits of the contention which is supposed to furnish the chief reason for the strike proposal now under consideration by the Brotherhood. A strike on the New Haven system would mean "the stopping of the wheels of industry, loss of employment to hundreds of thousands of laborers, interference with the regular supply of food and fuel," and other public evils; and the Governor gives notice that if a strike is declared he will, with the assent of the Council, call a special session of the Legislature "for the purpose of enacting laws which, after providing effective remedies for all grievances of employees, shall absolutely prohibit strikes of railroad operatives employed within the Commonwealth."

The Governor is informed that the principal question at issue between the organizations and the company is "whether the promotion of employees and the assignment of duties shall be governed solely by the rule of seniority, or whether fitness as well as length of service shall be taken into consideration." It seems almost incredible, after the revelations connected with the series of disasters on the New Haven road, that the labor organizations should have the hardihood to demand that assignments shall be "governed solely by the rule of seniority." But if such be the fact, Gov. Foss is certainly justified in his straightforword words to the Brotherhood: "If you precipitate a strike upon the seniority issue, you will invite the condemnation of every fair-minded man in New England and the nation."

The matter has a broader bearing. Apart from any peculiar relation which the mechanism of transportation has to the public welfare and the public safety, the words last quoted suggest the question whether the state of opinion in this country, upon labor questions in general, has undergone any radical

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change in the past few years. To "invite the condemnation of every fair-minded man in the nation" used to convey to American ears a pretty definite significance. In one sense, it may be regarded as a question-begging expression. It may be objected that what you mean by a "fair-minded man" is a man who thinks as you think. But in reality, the implication of such a phrase rested on the assumption that in an overwhelming degree public sentiment in America upon labor questions was conservative sentiment, law-abiding sentiment; and the assumption was undoubtedly justified by the solid fact. In recent years, some doubt has been thrown upon the continuance of this state of things. From time to time there have been excitements, or upheavals, which have led many persons to believe that the American people are no longer unshakably attached to the preservation of law and order, to the assertion of the paramount rights of the commonwealth as against the claims of a class. The swift advance of the I. W. W. gave occasion for much talk of this nature; and the exposure of the widespread McNamara dynamite conspiracy gave rise to a remarkable outburst of semi-hysterical alarm, to which some persons, usually sober and responsible, lent countenance.

But we have just had a reminder of the subsidence of that state of mind. It is now nearly two years since the revelation of the dynamite conspiracy. At the time there arose a multitude of voices declaring that among the working people there had been going on a terrible change, of which the nation at large had been serenely unconscious. Unless cognizance were promptly taken of it, unless public policy were promptly adapted to the changed situation, revolutionary violence must go on increasing. The conflict of classes was at last before us, if it were not averted by extraordinary wisdom. Nevertheless, the law went quietly on its course. A year after the exposure, thirty-eight labor men connected with the plot, some of them men high in great labor organizations, were convicted by an Indianapolis jury. There was no outbreak of labor resentment. There was no excitement among the public at large. Neither the year between the exposure and the conviction, nor the period of nine months since the conviction, has been a time marked by labor violence. Such disturbances as there have been were chiefly from the I. W. W.; and the I. W. W. itself looks decidedly less formidable now than it did a year ago. As for the dynamite plot, a new chapter in its story was begun on Thursday of last week, with the arrest of one of the principal agents in it, who had hitherto escaped, and who has made a confession that will further lay bare its extent. Nobody is making, in connection with this, any fresh prophecies of the impending downfall of the existing order of society. On the contrary, the dynamite affair is going the way of the Molly Maguires affair, of the railway riots of 1877, of the affair of the Chicago Anarchists, of the great Chicago trouble in 1894. These things are not as new as some of our young sociologists imagine; and on the other hand the nation's attachment to the idea that progress must be achieved along safe and orderly lines is, we suspect, far more deeply rooted than they realize.

THE THREATENED NATIONAL PARK

What has been going on in regard to the Hetch-Hetchy Valley, during the present special session of Congress, is precisely the kind of thing that goes on whenever a public park, national or local, is threatened. Outwardly, the matter takes many shapes, but at heart the thing is always the same. Some purpose, often a purpose in itself highly meritorious, can be served at vastly less expense than it otherwise could be, by utilizing for it land that had been set aside for park purposes. In behalf of the park, it is protested that this land had been understood to be inviolable; that the very essence of the matter is that it must be so held, in the face of temptation to sacrifice it on the plea of economy; that such pleas are continually recurring, and that unless we set our faces firmly against them, the permanent preservation of our most precious parks is out of the question. In behalf of the park-destroying project, on the other hand, the plea is made that this particular scheme is exceptional; that the utilitarian advantage is enormous, and that the injury to the park is slight or else that the value of the park itself to the public is very small in comparison with the amount of the proposed gain. The defenders of the park are a few devoted enthusiasts, while their opponents are a large number of practical men, working hard and persistently for an end which—whether public or private—has the clear, tangible importance that is represented by hundreds of thousands, or millions, of dollars. Moreover, the aggressors have the comforting advantage that they need to win only once, and the game is over; whereas the defenders have to beat off the assault again and again. If the defenders win in the end, it is usually because, at some critical moment, when their case seems almost hopeless, a final rally is made, public attention is thoroughly aroused, and the scheme is at last set at rest.

Through a great part of this familiar course the attempt of San Francisco to get possession of the wonderful Hetch-Hetchy Valley has passed. Many as are the details which have been brought into the matter, the real question to-day is whether opportunity will be given for that last stand of the defenders to which they are justly entitled. The House committee has reported in favor of the San Francisco scheme, and the House has passed the bill. The Senate committee has also reported favorably. Only determined opposition in the Senate by those who realize the irrevocable character of the act proposed, or else a veto by the President, can save the valley. Even such action now could be regarded only as a stay of proceedings. The whole subject would doubtless come up again at the regular session of Congress, and in all probability would then be conclusively disposed of, one way or the other. And there is every reason why such a stay of proceedings should be had. It always takes a long time for the sentiment of the country on such an issue to assert itself. Even as it is, sentiment against the scheme has been widely and strongly asserted in the press. It is only on the plea of urgent necessity that there could be any excuse for passing the bill at this special session, called for the purpose of passing the tariff and currency bills, on which interest has been almost exclusively centred; and the plea of urgent necessity has altogether failed to be made out.

In fact, an examination of the report of the House committee—which has played the chief part in the history of the bill in the present Congress—shows that no serious attempt is made to establish any emergency reason for the bill. The report merely produces by vague and general statements the impression

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that San Francisco is in desperate need of getting water by the flooding of the Hetch-Hetchy Valley, while at the same time there are scattered all through it virtual admissions that the only reason for asking this concession from the nation is that it would save the city about $20,000,000. The "extracts from conclusions of Board of U. S. Army Engineers," to which the report gives special prominence, begin with this:

> The project proposed by the city of San Francisco, known as the Hetch-Hetchy project, is about $20,000,000 cheaper than any other feasible project for furnishing an adequate supply.

The spirit of the House committee's report may in some degree be inferred from a single brief passage:

> A people who undauntedly met the greatest disaster in all the world's history, and who rebuilt a devastated city, ought to be given sufficient consideration to enable them to select their own water supply and to ease the tax burden, which falls most heavily upon those who work for a living. The Hetch-Hetchy question is not "a raid upon the Yosemite"; it is a question *solely* of providing pure water in ample supply to human beings.

The word we have put in italics was possibly a slip; but it was a very illuminating slip; and, furthermore, it is quite in keeping with the sentiment of the preceding sentence. If the people of San Francisco, on account of the losses they suffered from the earthquake and fire, have a right "to select their own water supply" and to "ease their tax burden," and if the ruin of a wonderful bit of natural scenery which the nation had set apart for preservation for all time is a consideration not pertinent to the case, of course there is nothing more to be said. But if the people of the United States cherish the policy of jealously guarding every such national possession; if they do not regard a little easing of the San Franciscans' "tax burden" as sufficient ground for departing from that policy; if they do not wish lightly to set a precedent which may return to plague them, which may endanger many another scene of beauty whose sacrifice is demanded upon similar pleas and with equal pertinacity; then there is no excuse for giving up the Hetch Hetchy unless a case is made out far stronger and far more convincing than that which has actually been presented.

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE STATE.

The serious illness of President Angell recalls not only the part he played at an important stage in the development of the University of Michigan, but the most interesting period in our whole educational history. He was one of four men who, born within the quinquennium from 1829 to 1834, were destined to assume positions of educational leadership just forty years later. The first of these to come to the front was Andrew D. White, who became the first president of Cornell in 1867. Charles W. Eliot was elected to the presidency of Harvard in 1869. James B. Angell exchanged the presidency of the University of Vermont for that of Michigan in 1871, and Daniel C. Gilman started Johns Hopkins upon its career in 1875. A certain similarity may be asserted of the work that lay before Presidents White and Gilman. Each of these men had the task of launching the institution which had called him to its service, different as the aims of Cornell and Johns Hopkins were and are. Presidents Eliot and Angell, on the other hand, had to do with established institutions, although there was a vast disparity of age between Harvard, with more than two centuries behind it, and the Western university, which could count a scant thirty years since its inception.

Age, however, was the least of the elements differentiating Michigan from Harvard; and the chief of these distinctions was true of Michigan as compared, not only with Harvard, but with either Cornell or Johns Hopkins. Every one of these Eastern universities was privately endowed; Michigan looked for its support to the State. However alike, therefore, might be some of the ideals which these four presidents set before themselves, the manner of their working out was bound to be radically affected for President Angell by this factor of State control. The new president must have congratulated himself, therefore, upon the condition of affairs which he found awaiting him at Ann Arbor. Under the influence of a few men who had had much to do with the University at its beginning, Michigan had been inspired to a considerable extent by German ideals of education. Indeed, in his "Reminiscences," President Angell goes so far as to say that the young institution "was shaped under broader and more generous views of university life than most of the Eastern colleges." It had happened, for example, that Isaac E. Crary was a member of the convention that framed the Constitution of 1835, and as Chairman of the Committee on Education drafted the article on that subject. Now, the famous report of Victor Cousin on public education in Prussia had fallen into the hands of the first Superintendent of Public Instruction in Michigan, who was a neighbor of Mr. Crary, and it formed the topic of much discussion between them. The result was the idea of a State system of schools with a university at its head.

But what, one asks, was bound to become of German educational ideals when they ran up against a set of American lawmakers? Strange as it may appear, in Michigan they lived to tell the tale. "I had occasion to visit the Legislature at several sessions," writes President Angell, "to make known to our committees, and sometimes to the whole body, our needs, and several times the whole Legislature visited the University. I wish to bear witness to the courtesy with which I was always received at Lansing, and the hearty interest in the institution which the members of the Legislature always evinced on their visits to us." He speaks even more explicitly of this relation, generally regarded as not a little hazardous for the institution involved:

> Eastern critics of the system of State support of universities have often assumed that the institutions would become embarrassed by being entangled in the controversies of party politics. It can be affirmed that such has never been the case in the support or control of this University. Different parties have been in control in this State during the life of the institution. But we have fared equally well, whichever party was in power, and no political controversy in the Legislature or in the State at large has ever embarrassed us.

Two years after he became president of Michigan, the friends of the University persuaded the Legislature to give it the proceeds of a twentieth-mill tax, in place of the special appropriations which had been the rule before. Later, this tax was raised to an eighth, and finally to three-eighths of a mill, and this method of providing funds for the State University has been followed by other Legislatures. This highly honorable course must have borne no small part in elevating the University of Michigan to the position it long held of the one Western institution of learning with a national reputation.

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It is impossible to read what President Angell says about the connection between the University of Michigan and the people of Michigan without feeling that here is something that is still distinctively Western in our educational practice, and perhaps in our educational ideals as well. From Germany came the notion of receiving students from the high schools of the State on diploma instead of by examination. The high schools had first to be approved, and the visits of University professors to these schools on inspection trips were so many opportunities for suggesting improvements to the teachers, for fanning the flame of ambition in the students, and for deepening the concern of the public in education, both higher and lower. Towns and villages were spurred to a new interest in the school which the University authorities thought worthy of a visit. The University dominated the educational realm, but it did so without that struggle with the secondary schools which is one of the features of our time. The fear that the schools would not be courageous in maintaining the requirements set for them by the University proved unfounded. It is evident that to President Angell education was nothing if not an intensely human activity.

THE SUPERCOLLEGIATE COMMITTEE ON FRESHMEN.

Prof. Hugo Münsterberg: The meeting will please come to order. We are now in the first week of October. This fact, which the ordinary citizen has probably accepted without question, has been amply confirmed in an elaborate series of laboratory tests carried on by means of white and yellow cards and rapidly revolving disks. Thus we are prepared to discuss once more the highly interesting question, why the vast majority of freshmen cannot spell. Neither can they write their native tongue in accordance with the rules of grammar.

Prof. T. R. Lounsbury: Aw, gee! Why should they? Look at Chaucer, Milton, and Browning. The fiercest bunch of little spellers you ever saw. And their grammar is simply rotten. They didn't care a red cent for the grammarians. When they saw a word or a phrase they liked they went to it. If the grammarians didn't agree with them it was up to the grammarians. Chaucer should worry.

Dr. Woods Hutchinson: Quite right.

Professor Lounsbury: The question is just this: Are freshmen made for the English language or is language made for freshmen? Language is like a human being: change does it good. Stick to your Lindley Murray and it's a cinch your little old English tongue will be a dead one in fifty years.

Dr. Hutchinson: I agree with Professor Lounsbury, speaking from the standpoint of physiology. Constant use of a plural verb with a plural subject plays the deuce with the larynx. You know what the larynx is, gentlemen. It's a rubber disk in the human Victrola. Drop the pin on the rubber disk and the record will grind out the same formula, again and again. Keep it up long enough and the record wears out. That's the larynx under the operation of grammatical rules. It gets the habit, and the first law of health is to avoid all habits. What you want to do is to shake up the larynx by feeding it with new forms of expression. When a man says "I done it," it imparts a healthy jolt to the delicate muscles of the throat, limbers up his aorta and his diaphragm, and reconciles him with his digestion. This is the opinion of eminent physiologists, like Drinckheimer of Leipzig.

Professor Lounsbury: Whom did you say the man is?

Dr. Hutchinson: Drinckheimer, professor at Leipzig. He doesn't write for the magazines.

Professor Lounsbury: Then you will agree with me that when a man has something to say he will say it?

Professor Münsterberg: We have an excellent illustration on this point in a history paper submitted in the last entrance examinations. In reply to the question, "Name the first two Presidents of the United States," one candidate wrote, "The first pressident was Gorge Washington; his predeceassor was Alexander Hamilton." Observe the extraordinary psychological correlation between thought and expression in such a reply.

Prof. A. B. Hart: I don't think the young man was guilty of an injustice with regard to Alexander Hamilton. You will recall that Hamilton was one of the principal founders of the system of privilege which has produced, in our own day, Lorimerism and the purchase of Southern delegates. If it had not been for Hamilton and his crowd we should not now be compelled to wage a campaign for social justice and I should not be under the necessity of writing Bull Moose history for *Collier's*.

Dr. Hutchinson: But getting back to the real point of our inquiry, whether the failure to spell and write correctly is a sign of mental feebleness——

Professor Münsterberg: On that point I believe I can speak with authority. Psychological tests in the laboratory show that the average freshman is as quick-witted to-day as his predecessor of fifty or a hundred years ago. We examined three hundred first-year men from eleven colleges and universities. Each man was required to peep into a dark box, shaped like a camera, through an eye-hole sixteen millimetres in diameter. By pressing a button, light was flashed upon a slip of paper inside the box, on which was printed, in letters nine millimetres high, the following question: "What is your favorite breakfast food?" The candidate was required to signify his answer by tapping with his finger on the table, one tap for Farinetta, two taps for Dried Husks, three taps for Atlas Crumbs, and so forth. The average time for three hundred answers was six and seven-tenths seconds. Thereupon the candidates were asked to think over the question at their leisure and to hand in a written answer sworn to before a notary public. On comparing the written answers with the laboratory results, it appeared that only thirty-seven out of the three hundred had tapped the wrong answer. Need I say more?

Professor Lounsbury: May I ask how the written answers showed up from the point of view of spelling and grammar?

Professor Münsterberg: They were impressively defective.

Professor Lounsbury: I'm tickled to death. When you cut out bad spelling and grammar, you queer the evolution of the English language. There's nothing to it.

Professor Münsterberg: But take the case of the freshman squad whom we kept in an hermetically sealed room for twenty-four hours in a temperature of 89 degrees——

Professor Lounsbury: May I ask what their language was when they were released at the end of twenty-four hours?

Professor Münsterberg: Truth compels me to say it was something awful.

Professor Lounsbury: But how about the grammar?

Professor Münsterberg: There was no grammar to speak of. They used mostly interjections.

Dr. Hutchinson: Finest thing in the world, interjections. Good for the lungs and the heart. Rapid succession of inhalation and expulsion keeps the bellows in prime order. That's all a man is, gentlemen, a bellows on a pair of stilts driven by a hydraulic pump. If the bellows holds out under sudden strain, that's all you want. That's why I like to hear people swear. It's good for the wind. Next time you walk down a step too many in the dark or lose your hat under a motor truck, don't hold yourself back. It's the way nature is safeguarding you against asthma.

Professor Münsterberg: Then it is the consensus of opinion here that the psychological and cultural status of our college freshmen is everything it ought to be?

Professor Hart: I'd rather take the opinion of a roomful of freshmen on any subject than the opinion of the United States Supreme Court. They don't know anything about American history, but it's the kind of history that isn't worth knowing. I prefer them to know things as they ought to have been rather than as they were before the Progressive party was born. Whatever is worth preserving from the past, including the Decalogue, will be found in the Bull Moose platform. We don't want examination papers. We want social justice.

Professor Lounsbury: Between you and I, the English language won't get what's coming to it until all entrance examinations and all other kinds have been chucked into the discard.

Dr. Hutchinson: Spelling is demonstrably bad for the muscles of the chest and the abdomen.

Professor Lounsbury: You've said it.

THE BICENTENARY OF DIDEROT.

The distinction of Diderot, the bicentenary of whose birth falls this week (October 5), is to be a universal precursor of modern life. More perhaps than any other man of the eighteenth century except Rousseau, he deserves to be accounted, in Amiel's phrase, an an-

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cestor in all things. "The age," he wrote to Grimm in 1765, "always ends by coming around to my taste and point of view. . . . Do not laugh: it is I who anticipate the future and know its thought." Now most of the revolutionary changes that have taken place from Diderot's time to ours rest, in the final analysis, on a re-interpretation of the word nature; and Diderot was successful in anticipating the future because he was so thoroughgoing a naturalist. In the "Supplément au voyage de Bougainville" he paints a picture of primitive life which is very close to Rousseau in its emphasis on man's native goodness, if not in the more than Rabelaisian crudity of certain details. But he was not, like Rousseau, an obscurantist; he would maintain the intellect in its rights if only in the interests of the investigator. Here is a chief reason why Goethe had a veritable cult for Diderot long after he had repudiated Rousseau. It is characteristic of the history of Diderot's writings that his masterpiece, the "Neveu de Rameau," became known in France only through a retranslation of Goethe's translation more than fifty years (1821) after its probable date of composition. The more significant relationship between Diderot and Goethe appears, however, in a work like the latter's "Metamorphosis of Plants." For Diderot is most original as a scientific naturalist, especially in his anticipations of evolution. Some of these anticipations were so bold that, so far from printing them, he ventured to represent them only as muttered by D'Alembert in the course of a feverish dream. What we find in the "Rêve de D'Alembert" (published in 1830) is, in addition to the cell theory, virtually all the essential hypotheses of the modern evolutionist. Nature is conceived by Diderot as a perpetual flux in which the higher forms of being develop by almost insensible gradations from the lower. "Every animal is more or less man; every mineral is more or less plant; every plant is more or less animal. There is nothing precise in nature." He foreshadows Darwin, not only in his hypotheses, but in his perception of the subordinate place of hypothesis in true science. He narrates a curious vision in which the rôle of experiment is revealed to him as opposed to mere theory. Experiment appears to him first in the form of a child; but as the child advances his limbs swell until he becomes an enormous colossus, and at his touch the air-hung Temple of Metaphysics falls with a crash—and Diderot awakes.

I.

In a passage of this kind Diderot speaks in the spirit of the English positivists and utilitarians, and, indeed, however un-English he may appear in his personal quality, he is more than almost any other French writer of his time a disciple of the English, from Bacon to the contemporary sentimentalists.* "Jacques le Fataliste," for example, is at once a pastiche of Sterne and a proclamation of scientific naturalism. We can, in fact, see in Diderot as perhaps nowhere else the interplay and deep underlying connection between the scientific and emotional aspects of the naturalistic movement. Conceiving nature as a pure flux, he proceeds, like the ancient sophists, to transfer this conception from the physical to the human plane. "The first vow," he exclaims, "taken by two mortal beings was at the foot of a rock that was crumbling into dust; as witness to their constancy they called upon a sky that is not for an instant the same; everything was passing within them and about them, and they thought their hearts immune from these vicissitudes," etc. As versified by Alfred de Musset, this passage became a favorite romantic theme:

Oui, les premiers baisers, oui, les premiers serments
Que deux êtres mortels échangèrent sur terre,
Ce fut au pied d'un arbre effeuillé par les vents,
Sur un roc en poussière. . . .

We are thus constantly reminded in Diderot how much romanticists have in common with so-called realists and scientific evolutionists, especially in their relation to the traditional disciplines, whether classical or Christian. All the specifically modern uses of the word nature are in germ in the following passage from the "Supplément au voyage de Bougainville":

> Do you wish to know in brief the tale of almost all our woe? There once existed a natural man; there has been introduced within this man an artificial man, and there has arisen in the cave a civil war which lasts throughout life.

Everything, then, that restrains "nature" is to be dismissed as empty convention. Above all, there is to be no restraint on the most imperious of the instincts, that of sex. To the idyllic picture of the emancipation of this instinct in the "Supplément" corresponds the violent diatribe against the putting of restraint upon it in "La Religieuse." "What they call evangelical perfection," Diderot complains, "is only the fatal art of repressing nature." Diderot would therefore turn away from the "war in the cave," that is, the struggle between good and evil in the breast of the individual, and fix his attention on the progress of mankind as a whole in knowledge and sympathy. On the positive side, as an expression of the Baconian and utilitarian ideal, the "Encyclopédie" derives from England. Yet contemporaries, who knew Diderot almost exclusively as editor of the "Encyclopédie," were right in feeling that the significance of the work is more negative than positive—it is a huge battering ram levelled at all the citadels of traditional authority. "This work," he writes to Mademoiselle Volland, "will surely produce in time a revolution in men's minds, and I hope that tyrants, oppressors, fanatics, and bigots will not gain thereby."

In general, Diderot's work has more unity on the negative than on the positive and constructive side. He is less a man of fixed principles than an impressionist. He is very "natural" in his own sense, that is, very temperamental. He is a native of Langres, he explains, and the head of a Langrois is set on his body like a weather-vane on a steeple (a mobility that Diderot refers in turn to the climate): "I had in a day a hundred different physiognomies, according to the circumstance by which I was affected. I was calm, sad, dreamy, tender, violent, passionate, enthusiastic," etc. He is so little capable of dominating and unifying his impressions, so little capable, in short, of composition, that he can scarcely be said to be a writer at all; he is rather, in Sainte-Beuve's phrase, the Homer of journalists. His collected works are a vast and confused improvisation. Though he has little true dramatic sense, his favorite literary form is the dialogue, and this is perhaps because he already inclines, like Renan, to set "the two lobes of his brain to conversing with each other." Some of his writings seem to proceed from the opposite poles of human thought. In general, his conception of genius is thoroughly romantic: the genius is the man who cannot control himself, and who aspires to stormy emancipation from neo-classical smugness. "Poetry," he says, "calls for something enormous, barbaric, and savage"; and he continues in a remarkable forecast of the actual relation between the romantic movement and the Revolution:

> When shall we see poets again? It will be after times of disaster and great misfortune; when the harassed nations begin to breathe once more. Then imaginations, shaken by terrible spectacles, will picture things unknown to those who have not witnessed them.

But in the "Paradoxe sur le comédien" he opposes to the central romantic doctrine of spontaneity, of free effusion, the no less central classical doctrine of imitation. Diderot, the most temperamental of men, living, in his own phrase, at the mercy of his diaphragm, is opposed to temperamental acting.* The actor is not to be an emotionalist, but a cool observer, who works out with the aid of his intellect and judgment a model and then imitates it. Above all, he must

*A very complete and careful study of this English influence has just appeared: *Diderot as a Disciple of English Thought*, by R. Loyalty Cru. New York: Columbia University Press.

*Diderot was greatly influenced in his ideas about acting, as Dr. Cru points out, by his conversations with Garrick.

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avoid feeling his rôle while acting it. The "Paradoxe sur le comédien" was published in 1830, only a few years before Musset's "Stances à la Malibran." Musset takes the position one would have expected Diderot to anticipate. La Malibran is extolled because she so superabounded in "soul" in the romantic sense, and shed real tears upon the stage. This emotional facility, says Diderot, is a sign not of genius, but of mediocrity. "I am making no ordinary confession," he adds, "for if Nature ever fashioned an emotional soul, it is my own."

Diderot is, indeed, a perfect example of *l'âme sensible*, the lachrymose and declamatory precursor of the true romanticist. A man would be ashamed, says La Bruyère, to display his feelings at the theatre. In Diderot's time he would have been ashamed not to display them; for in the meantime the great discovery had been made that man is naturally good and that the proper way for this goodness to manifest itself is to overflow through the eyes. It had become almost a requirement of good manners to weep and sob in public. At the performance of the "Père de Famille," in 1769, we are told that every handkerchief was in use. The Revolution seems to have raised doubts as to the necessary connection between tearfulness and goodness. The "Père de Famille" was hissed from the stage in 1811. Geoffroy commented in his feuilleton: "We have learned by a fatal experience that forty years of declamation and fustian about sensibility, humanity, and benevolence have served only to prepare men's hearts for the last excesses of barbarism."

As to the dulness and badness of Diderot's actual plays, all are agreed. There is somewhat less agreement regarding the value and influence of the dramatic theories with which he accompanied them. His plea for the middle-class drama, his attack on the notion that only persons of a certain social rank had a right to be taken seriously on the stage, whereas others were to be relegated to comedy and farce, was part of a world movement that would probably have triumphed without him. The more original parts of his dramatic theory illustrate interestingly, at least, his attempt to get rid of the "war in the cave"—in other words, his naturalistic denial of dualism. Instead of character he would put upon the stage professions or callings. Man is to be exhibited not as determining himself but as determined by his social rôle and environment—a conception realized, if at all, not in the drama, but in the "Comédie humaine" of Balzac. For the subtle shadings of speech that the great dramatists have needed to set forth the inner struggle of motives, he would substitute, so far as possible, pantomime, and for true dramatic action he would give us a series of stage pictures (what he calls a *décoration animée*), so combined as to preach a moral of general social utility. A highly melodramatic problem play done in moving pictures would seem to come very near satisfying all his requirements.

II.

Diderot's notion of the drama, it has been objected, is too pictorial; his notion of painting, on the other hand, is too literary and dramatic. In his attack on the older or pseudo-classic confusion of the arts, based on the maxim *ut pictura poesis*, he furnished pregnant hints to Lessing; at the same time he prepares the way for our modern confusions arising from an emotionalism that overflows all barriers.

Opinions diverge even more widely regarding his "Salons" than regarding his dramatic theories, some looking upon him as the inventor, others as the corrupter, of the true criticism of art. As to the reproach that he sees in painting a sort of transposed literature, that he is less interested in the execution than in the subject or story, the obvious reply is that it would have been hard for him to see more literary intentions in the pictures of the time than the artists were themselves striving to put there. After all, a work of art should be something more than a triumph of technique. It should have an adequate human purpose. The true reproach to bring against Diderot is not that he put primary emphasis upon the subject, but that his conception of the subject should be satisfied by the "Mauvais Fils puni" of Greuze. Here again his weakness can be traced to his denial of dualism, and the consequent substitution of emotionalism for insight. He fails to temper the mere keenness of his relish, his infinite zest, with judgment, an inner mediation that is, after all, only one aspect of the "war in the cave." And so he has gusto rather than taste. His gusto usually shows itself in the warmth of his appreciation, and not, as often in the case of Hazlitt, for example, in the violence of his antipathies. "I am naturally inclined to neglect faults and to grow enthusiastic over virtues. . . . If there is a fine feature in a book, a character, a picture, a statue, it is on that my eyes rest: I see and remember only that; the rest is almost forgotten." He is plainly a forerunner of the "creative" critic in the neo-romantic sense, of the man who narrates the adventures of his "soul" in the presence of masterpieces. The rôle of the artist is to be reduced to expressing the reaction of his temperament to any outer stimulus; and the rôle of the critic in turn to telling how his temperament is affected by this expression. What is eliminated in both cases is that element in human nature which acts as a check upon temperament.

III.

The main problem, according to the older school, is not the mere expressing, but the humanizing of temperament. You must set up before you, this school maintained, an image of normal human nature, and then accept the curb on temperamental impulse imposed by the imitation of this model. The result of this restraint upon temperament is decorum. The process by which this great central doctrine of classicism degenerated into mere artificiality, by which decorum became identified with the usages of polite society or with academic routine, is well known. Diderot's rôle in the revolt against this artificial decorum is perhaps second only to that of Rousseau. I have already said something about his attack on artificial decorum in the drama. "Ah! bienséances cruelles, que vous rendez les ouvrages décents et petits." There was an almost ludicrous opposition between the exuberance of Diderot's temperament and the limits imposed by decorum either true or artificial. Catherine the Great wrote to Madame Geoffrin that she was black and blue as the result of the slappings Diderot had given her in their interviews, and that she had had to interpose a table to protect herself from the violence of his gesticulations.

Critics are wont to praise Diderot for his flashes of divination, his genial intuitions: and this praise is deserved so far as his intuitions of physical law are concerned. On the other hand, he is radically lacking in perception of the human law and in the fine tact and sense of measure that arise from this perception. He is an extraordinarily complete type of the pure expansionist, of the man who lives in a "wide-open universe." The total effect of his personality is that of excess, of an unrestrained riot of intellect and emotion, of what the French would call *une verve endiablée*. "He appears natural only when exaggerated," said Madame Necker of him. "Ideas that have got drunk and taken to running after one another" is a description of his theories by another contemporary. He often seems, however, far madder than he is, being in this respect the exact opposite of Rousseau. His works remind us only too frequently that decorum and decency are very nearly related, and that the words were indeed long synonymous. The work in which he has the memorable Baconian vision I have already cited, is not merely indecent, but criminally indecent; it is mildly described by Diderot himself as the "pestilential exhalation of a sewer." A Platonic gleam may rest upon his brow, says Sainte-Beuve, but look more closely and you will always see the satyr's hoof. "He equalled Bacon and Aretino," is the doubtful compliment of a contemporary couplet.

To his absence of decorum he owes

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largely what is in the eyes of many the chief of literary virtues—an amazing frankness of self-revelation. Any one who has been through his writings, from his "Regrets on His Old Dressing-Gown" to the Letters to Mademoiselle Volland, will scarcely complain of any lack of intimate contact with the author.

An age like our own in which not merely ordinary mortals, but Secretaries of State and Presidents, have dispensed with decorum, and which, to judge by certain recent symptoms, is preparing to dispense with decency, should certainly recognize in Diderot one of its ancestors. Yet, after all, decorum is, in Milton's phrase, the grand masterpiece to observe. If the world ever works its way out of the present naturalistic imbroglio, the discarding of true along with conventional decorum may be seen to be about the worst instance on record (if I may be allowed the familiar phrase) of "pouring out the baby with the bath." To miss decorum is to become incapable of what is best in art and literature (not to speak of life itself); it is to lose the secret of selection and the grand manner. Diderot's weakness in this respect already foreshadows the latest predicament into which art has fallen—its helpless oscillations between a photographic literalness and incomprehensible attempts to symbolize purely personal emotion. To be sure, Diderot can on occasion say admirable things on the grand manner, as he can say admirable things on almost any other topic. He knew his classics and has written pages on Terence (in whom he saw a sort of ancestor of the *drame bourgeois*) which are justly celebrated. Yet we may question the high seriousness of a critic who calls upon the centuries to pass more swiftly, in order that they may bring with them the honors due to Richardson, and in the meanwhile puts Richardson on the same shelf with Homer; and who exalts Lillo, author of "The London Merchant," to the side of Sophocles. We should feel sure, even without the "Plan for a University" which he submitted to the Empress Catherine, that he had no true conception of the rôle of the humanities in education, and that the total tendency of his mind is flatly utilitarian.

IV.

Diderot, speaking as an eighteenth-century sentimentalist, would have us believe that men have only to return to nature, that is, to live temperamentally, to become denizens of Arcadia; but in at least one of his works, the "Neveu de Rameau," the Arcadian mist is dissipated and the actual state of nature is seen to be the struggle for life. To cast off all the laws and usages of the society in which one lives as mere conventions and obey only the promptings of temperament, is in reality to be a Bohemian; and Rameau's nephew is not merely a Bohemian, but also, in intention at least, a beast of prey. Life as he sees it is a universal scramble for power and pleasure. The prizes go to the strong and cunning, and the fools and weaklings pay for all the rest. Rationalism has undermined the traditional foundations of society, and is impotent to put anything in their place. Perhaps in no other work of the eighteenth century can one hear so plainly as in the "Neveu de Rameau" the sinister crackings of an edifice that is about to come down on the heads of its occupants.

The view of life set forth by Rameau's nephew is already that of Rastignac and other similar figures in Balzac. It is no accident that the generation which worshipped Balzac also most exalted Diderot; the generation, namely, which became active about the middle of the nineteenth century and which called itself, in opposition to the previous romantic generation, realistic; which looked up to Taine as its representative thinker and found its extreme expression, not to say its caricature, in the novels of Zola. Diderot more than anticipates Taine and the determinists when he proclaims that "there is no liberty, no action that deserves praise or blame, there is neither vice nor virtue, nothing that should be rewarded or punished. . . . There is only one sort of causes, to speak properly—physical causes." Does this attempt to reduce life to the usufruct of an aggregation of molecules, as one of the school expressed it, deserve to be called realism? Diderot's method of dealing with material nature is undoubtedly realistic; and in so far he is worthy of all praise. How about human nature? The Empress Catherine, whose knowledge of human nature, it will be generally granted, was real, so far as it went, concluded, after almost daily interviews with Diderot for several months, that he was not a realist, but a dreamer, a man whose imagination ran away with his sense of fact, and therefore in his notions of practical matters a utopist. To be able to judge correctly the persons one meets in everyday life would seem to be a fair test of the realist; and this Diderot was notoriously incapable of doing. A certain imaginative deformation of reality is visible in nearly all the works of the school. Balzac's Paris, for example, is not real, but a lurid dream, the rather peculiar type of Arcadia projected by an imagination that is flying off at a tangent from reality. As Leslie Stephen put it, Paris, according to Balzac, is hell; but, then, hell is the only place worth living in. Zola's peasants, again, are not real; they are naturalistic nightmares. We should be careful not to bestow lightly the noble name of realist.

This whole dispute as to what is a real rendering of human nature reduces itself at last to a single question: Is the "war in the cave" artificial, after all? Suppose it be true, as the humanist asserts, that deep down in the breast of the individual man, far more primary and immediate than either thought or feeling, is a power of control over thought and feeling, a something that may be defined experimentally as the back pull towards the centre. In that case, the "war in the cave," so far from being artificial, the mere prejudice of outworn dogmatisms, is a fact of formidable import. To deny this fact in the name of "nature" is to be guilty of a monstrous mutilation of human nature. Hope for the future may lie in the man who will plant himself resolutely on this fact and refuse to be drawn away from it into some phantasmagoria of the intellect or emotions; who will submit to a stern scrutiny from the point of view of this fact the fluent assumptions of both scientific and sentimental naturalists; who will deal with the "law for man" even as the Baconian has dealt with the "law for thing," and look with at least equal disdain on the apriorist and the builder of systems; who will take issue with the men of science, not because they are hardheaded, but because they are not hardheaded enough; whose complaint of the positivists will be that they are not sufficiently positive; who will be ready, in short, to react in the name of the modern spirit against the great expansive movement of the past century, of which Diderot is rightly held to be the universal precursor.

IRVING BABBITT.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

One of the methods by which England endeavored to regain her control of the American colonies was by the establishment of an English bishop in America, who should unite factions and fill the pulpits. The clergymen, in turn, were to exert a powerful influence for submission on their congregations. On October 13 a complete collection of pamphlets embodying this American Episcopate Controversy will appear at auction at the Anderson Galleries.

The first of the series, "A Sermon Preached before the Incorporated Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts; at their Anniversary Meeting," aroused an excitement in America which was out of all proportion to the importance of the project. The idea was not original, and had been mooted for a generation or two without provoking a ripple in American politics. But the psychological moment had arrived when any movement that tended to increase the power of England in the colonies would be fought with vigor and persistency. John Adams, writing in 1815, says:

The apprehension of Episcopacy contributed fifty years ago, as much as any other cause, to arouse the attention, not only of the inquiring mind, but of the common people, and urge them to close thinking on the constitutional authority of Parliament

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over the colonies. . . . The objection was not merely to the office of a bishop, though even that was dreaded, but to the authority of Parliament, on which it must be founded.

The Bishop of Landaff's sermon at once provoked a spirited reply from Dr. Charles Chauncy, of Boston, entitled: "Dr. Chauncy's Remarks on certain Passages in the Bishop of Landaff's Society-Sermon. . . . In which the highest Reproach is undeservedly cast upon the American Colonies. Boston, 1767." In these "Remarks" the author writes:

It may be relied on, our people would not be easy, if restrained in the exercise of that "liberty wherewith Christ has made them free"; yea, they would hazard everything dear to them, their estates, their very lives, rather than suffer their necks to be put under that yoke of bondage which was so sadly galling to their forefathers, and occasioned their retreat to this distant land that they might enjoy the freedom of men and Christians.

Dr. Thomas Bradbury Chandler, Rector of St. John's Church, in Elizabethtown, N. J., at the request of a Convention of the Clergy of New York and New Jersey, then proceeded, in "An Appeal to the Public in Behalf of the Church of England in America," to urge the claims of the loyal clergymen in this country. By William Livingston, of New York, was issued "A Letter to the Right Reverend Father in God, John, Lord Bishop of Landaff; Occasioned by Some Passages in his Lordship's Sermon . . . in which the American Colonies are loaded with great and undeserved Reproach." Mr. Livingston objected to the aspersions on the colonists as having "abandoned their native manners and religion," and pointed to the laws of New England, which required lands to be set apart in every new township for the erection of churches. He claimed a more general observance of the Sabbath in America than in London, and shrank from any further manifestation of England's power, political or ecclesiastical, in the colonies. Dr. Chandler reissued his pamphlet and added a Supplement, replying to Dr. Chauncy. This Supplement has also been attributed to the Rev. Caleb Fleming.

Perhaps the most interesting, bibliographically, of these controversial pamphlets, is "A Vindication of the Bishop of Landaff's Sermon from the gross Misrepresentations and Abusive Reflections, contained in Mr. William Livingston's Letter to his Lordship: With some Additional Observations on certain Passages in Dr. Chauncy's Remarks. By a Lover of Truth and Decency." One bibliographer, only, appears to have discovered the author of this work, but a contemporary life of Samuel Johnson, by Mr. Chandler, states that it was by the Rev. Charles Inglis, rector of Trinity Church, New York. Three issues with slight variations appeared in 1768, but it is impossible to determine which was the earliest.

After another epistle from the pen of Dr. Chauncy in reply to Mr. Chandler, an anonymous publication by "Anti-Episcopalian" argued against the dangers of an encroachment on American liberties by American bishops; and Micajah Towgood wrote "A Dissent from the Church of England Fully Justified." Then followed a whole collection of Tracts by William Livingston and others, which so perturbed the loyal ministers that Dr. Smith, of Philadelphia, wrote to the Bishop of London: "The addresses of the Jersey Convention and Dr. Chandler's appeal about bishops for America, tho' in the main well done, have raised a great Flame. There is nothing but writing in every newspaper—The Church here is now very rudely treated by a malevolent set of Writers and tho' I could have wished our side had not given any cause yet they must not be left unsupported, and I am determined now to contribute my mite for great openings are given to detect their shameful misrepresentations." Early in 1769, Mr. Chandler and Dr. Chauncy again exchanged arguments expressing still more rancor and heat, and in the same year a letter from Thomas Secker, Bishop of Oxford, from Horace Walpole, was unearthed, and printed in support of the loyal clergyman. This occasioned a critical commentary by Francis Blackburne, with its inevitable reply from Mr. Chandler.

The controversy reached its climax in 1771, when Myles Cooper wrote "An Address from the Clergy in New York and New Jersey to the Episcopalians in Virginia; Occasioned by some late transactions in that Colony Relative to an American Episcopate." It was suggested by the action of the House of Burgesses of Virginia, by whom it was, "*Resolved, Nemine Contradicente,* That the thanks of this House be given to the Reverend Mr. Henley, the Reverend Mr. Gwatkin, the Reverend Mr. Hewitt, and the Reverend Mr. Bland, of the wise and well-timed Opposition they have made to the pernicious project of a few mistaken Clergymen, for introducing an American Bishop: a Measure, by which much Disturbance, great Anxiety, and Apprehension, would certainly take Place among his Majesty's faithful American Subjects."

To Mr. Cooper, Thomas Gwatkin replied in 1772, and after one or two desultory attempts by Mr. Chandler, the controversy was brought to a close by the absolute refusal of the colonists to accept of anything English, except on their own terms.

E. F. HANABURGH.

Correspondence

A LITERARY AFFECTATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Recently I have encountered several productions of a popular writer in periodicals rather outside my usual field of reading. They attracted my attention and led me on, until presently I began to feel a certain dragging sensation. The cause was not at first apparent. The characters were interesting, if rather repellent; there was plenty of the "action" so strenuously demanded by constituencies of the baser sort, and the dialogue had a sparkle, even if it was somewhat hard and metallic in its glitter.

It was in the dialogue that the drag was most felt, and further analysis discovered the cause. In one short passage I met these expressions:

"Need any help?" husked A.
"They're our best revenue," defended B.
"Still your jolly self," greeted C.
"It's a wonder they don't square themselves," chatted D.

In another of the stories are these choice bits:

"I know his kind," fondly remembered E.
"Why shouldn't he?" scorned F.
"It's a lie!" perfunctorily denied G.

And these in still another:

"Very thoughtful of you," dryly thanked H.
"He can win her love," she faintly surrendered.

These are but a few of a host of expressions which grated on my mental ear and distracted attention from the story itself. "A husked." Why husked? Does the word contain some recondite allusion to the old-time barn and bee and red ear and pretty girl? Or does it mean that A was a "husky" person and spoke in a loud tone of voice? Or can it be an abortive attempt to intimate that his voice was *hoarse? If so, why not say "hoarsed A"?*

After a careful examination, I believe I have reached the true diagnosis. The trouble of this writer and those like him is an acute case of logophobia. They dread the sight of the good old word "said" as a hydrophobic patient dreads water. But why? It is an eminently useful and even respectable word, one which our best authors have not feared nor disdained to employ, and employ freely. Taking down a volume of Thackeray, for instance, and opening it at random, I note that he does, indeed, use synonyms — "says," "cries," "shouts," "remarks," "continues," "bawls," "asks," etc.—all of which, fairly implying, as they do, the idea of saying, are perfectly legitimate. But he does not deal in such monstrosities as are quoted above. Indeed, he is not above writing "said" with half a dozen speeches in succession. Furthermore, in Scott's "Ivanhoe" we meet "said" eight or even nine times on a single page, and in Hall Caine's "Manxman" it occurs eleven times in twelve successive speeches. Nor is Jane Austen more timid in employing the simple word from which this writer shrinks with such loathing.

Of contemporary authors, few have used the language more effectively than Rudyard Kipling, yet he seems to have been hopelessly ignorant of the new canon. In his short story, "At the End of the Passage," selected wholly at random, the abhorrent "said" occurs seventy-three times—about once every hundred words—as against only thirteen occurrences of substitutes. Incidentally, we may note that the simple "said" is found eight times on one page of about 370 words. Like examples may be found in our own Poe, and even in Howells.

Undue repetition of any word is, of course, to be avoided, but why fly to the opposite extreme? Why so evidently go out of your way to escape the natural expression? The very effort defeats itself, and frequently where "said" would pass without notice the forced substitute obtrudes itself to the distraction of the reader.

A friend suggests that this new dogma may be an outgrowth of George Meredith's example. He evidently did shun the word's excessive recurrence; yet, while some of his phrasing is abrupt and harsh, he does not follow the practice *ad absurdum.* His imitators, as often happens, have observed the letter and wholly missed the spirit of his usage—have copied the form with all its faults, but without its redeeming qualities of style.

If the word "obsession" were not so sadly overworked just now, I should apply it to this fad—this setting up of a new

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literary fetish. Of course, it is not affected even now by writers of the first class, though it is, unfortunately, by a few whose popularity for the moment gives it vogue.

H. M. KINGERY.

Crawfordsville, Ind., October 2.

THE INCOME TAX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with interest both Mr. Root's speech on the income tax and your comment thereon in the *Nation* of September 11. It is undesirable that a large number of citizens should feel that they bear no burdens for the support of the government. That is what has happened under all forms of indirect taxation. Because the mass of the people were ignorant that they paid the tariff, they clung to that form of taxation. But all taxes can be and are shifted, except the personal property tax (and that is not paid) and the poll tax. As Mr. Root says, the income tax will fall chiefly upon the industrial communities. Yet the whole country will pay the tax; for when the income derived from the industries is taxed, the price of the products will be adjusted to the increased cost of production, and the wages of labor will also be adjusted to the new conditions. It has been said that the laborer pays all taxes. It would be truer to say that the consumer and the laborer pay all taxes. The tax on professional incomes will likewise be paid by the consumers of the professional services.

If a knowledge of the working of economic laws could be diffused among Americans, none would cherish the delusion that he did not pay an income tax, or the "single tax," if that should ever prevail.

ANNE HERSMAN.

Chicago, September 29.

RACE SEGREGATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last issue of the *Nation* you commend the editor of the Lexington, Ky., *Herald* for remonstrating against the segregation of the races in the departments at Washington, which policy, he says, when transmitted to lower channels may be most disastrous. You quote him as saying: "No greater calamity could befall this nation than to have included in its inhabitants millions of people of any race in whose face the door of hope is shut."

Now, at the risk of being classed by you among the "ignorant" or "reactionaries," I want to say that there is no "door of hope" closed against the negro in this country, but the door of hope for amalgamation with the white race. As a protection to future generations and to the integrity of the white race this door must be ever closed, and to make it all the more secure every approach to it must and will be guarded with vigilance. This can only be done by laws requiring segregation of the races in public places. To race pride (or race prejudice, if you prefer to call it that) we must look to retain the purity of the white race in this country, and all signs go to show that this race pride is not weakening. It is just as strong in California against the idea of amalgamating with the Japanese as it is in South Carolina against mixing with the negro, and the white people of Maine would have the same legal separation of the races that they have in Mississippi if the negroes outnumbered the whites in that State.

L. S. JOHNSTON.

Versailles, Ky., September 22.

Literature

THE COURTS AND THE LAW.

Certainty and Justice: Studies of the Conflict between Precedent and Progress in the Development of the Law. By Frederic R. Coudert. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1.50 net.

Justice and the Modern Law. By Everett V. Abbot. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.60 net.

Our Judicial Oligarchy. By Gilbert E. Roe. New York: B. W. Huebsch. $1 net.

These three books supply considerable material for a study in the psychology of the present popular feeling towards the courts. The authors agree that this feeling is one of hostility to judges, or at least to the legal system administered by our judiciary, but they differ about the causes.

Mr. Coudert thinks that the two main reasons for dissatisfaction are, first, that the law of to-day is somewhat out of harmony with real life, because of the rapid economic and social changes of the last generation and the tardy response of the law to such changes; secondly, the great expense, delay, and uncertainty attending litigation. In his opinion, it is the law and the lawyers that are distrusted by the public rather than the courts.

Mr. Abbot, on the other hand, is certain that our law is all right, and that the confused and unsatisfactory situation in which we find ourselves is due to the indisposition of judges to discard precedents and their inability to reason logically and fearlessly. His view appears to be that if all judges would take a course under him in ethics and logic, things would right themselves easily. "If, in any jurisdiction of the United States," he declares, "the law was suddenly to be *administered* as it actually *is*, the people would receive justice." Justice, he defines as "a real equality in opportunity and a real brotherhood in effort"; and his book is intended "to show that justice is much nearer to us as the feasible reality of a hard and work-a-day world than any man dreams." Let all judges adopt the ethics of Mr. Abbot and learn from him how and when to apply "the principle of sufficient reason," "the principle of alternatives," "the test of the *reductio ad absurdum*," and "the principle of the argumentative traverse," and the popular clamor against the courts will give way to a well-nigh universal acclaim that we "have an ideal system of justice."

Mr. Roe has no faith in our common law or in our judges. These judges, following the example of their English forebears, "habitually think in the terms of the rich and powerful. This process of thinking has built up a system of law barbarous in its injustice and inequality." The only part of our law worthy of commendation is that found in "progressive legislation," and much of that has been destroyed by the courts. Hence Mr. Roe characterizes them as "our judicial oligarchy." He declares that the judiciary is the weakest branch of the government, and yet its members "are constantly tempted to a conflict in which they must always be worsted." This tendency amazes him. Indeed, his astonishment at the temerity of judges in constantly running amuck is equalled only by his indignation at their tyranny.

If we turn from their consideration of the causes of popular discontent with our judiciary to their discussion of the particular faults of the courts, we shall find our three authors still at variance. Mr. Roe does not hesitate to charge the courts with usurpation of the power to declare laws unconstitutional. No such authority is expressly given to them by the Constitution, and, in his opinion, ought never to have been exercised by them. Their decisions under this usurped power, he asserts, "protect special privilege and represent ideas of government and of law which are in conflict with the convictions of a majority of the people." With such notions Mr. Abbot has no patience. While he admits that the courts have committed serious error at times in declaring beneficent laws unconstitutional, "the tendency to err," he declares, "is not in the direction of declaring too many laws unconstitutional, but in the direction of not declaring enough laws unconstitutional." The power to strike down unconstitutional statutes is, in his opinion, confided to the courts by the fundamental law, and is "the wisest means ever taken by a country to save itself against sorrow and distress." Our country has "by command of the people themselves made the square deal the ultimate and supreme law of the land." It has provided that every man who thinks he is oppressed may "seek protection against invasion of his rights by resort to the quiet chambers of an impartial tribunal where both sides can be heard, rather than to the heat and passion of political struggle."

Nor has Mr. Abbot any greater tolerance of Mr. Roe's programme of social justice, which the courts have shattered, than of his charge of judicial usurpation in the shattering. Of the advocate of such a programme, Mr. Abbot says:

Inspired by a yearning to alleviate sufferings which are only too obvious, filled

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with an anxious desire to give a square deal to the under dog, he devises all sorts of experimental industrial legislation, and grows hotly impatient of anything which delays or hinders his benevolent projects. When some court interposes a constitutional objection to his enactments, instead of trying to convince the court of its error, he is all for abolishing the court as an eighteenth-century obstacle to twentieth-century progress.

As one reason why the people distrust the courts, Mr. Roe asserts that "the poor man is not on an equality with the rich one before the courts." He admits that the rich litigant will always have great advantage over his poorer opponent because of his ability to employ better counsel, prepare his case better, and endure more easily the law's delays. But this is not the inequality which arouses popular distrust of the courts. Mr. Roe's "charge against the courts is that their judges habitually think in the terms of the rich and powerful. The training, sympathies, experiences and general view of life of most judges has made this inevitable." He then cites in support of this charge the judicial decisions which developed the fellow-servant doctrine and the rules as to contributory negligence and assumption of risk. But he makes no allusion to the many legal doctrines established by the courts which favor the poor at the expense of the rich.

Had Mr. Roe wished to be fair towards the judges, he would have given as much prominence to the "alluring nuisance" cases as to those relating to master and servant. He would have informed his readers that the alluring nuisance doctrine originated in opinions written by Judge Dillon, of the United States Circuit Court, and by Justice Hunt, of the Federal Supreme Court; that Judge Dillon resigned his judgeship and became counsel for the Gould interests; that Justice Hunt was a social aristocrat, and before going on the bench had been counsel for banks, railways, and similar interests; and yet that these men, with the concurrence of their associates, established the doctrine that a railway company which allows a turn-table to remain exposed and unguarded, where children may be tempted to play with it, is to be regarded as holding out implied invitation to such children to play with it, and, accordingly, if children are thus allured upon turn-tables or other dangerous premises, and are injured, they may recover damages from the railway company, or other landowners. In the leading case of Stout vs. Sioux City Railway, above referred to, a boy of six years, who had wandered three-quarters of a mile from his house to play with the defendant's alluring turn-table, with a crushed foot as the result, obtained a verdict of $7,500, which was upheld by the Supreme Court.

Certainly, the judges who established the "alluring-nuisance" doctrine did not habitually think in the terms of the rich and powerful. And a person would run no risk who should undertake to match every decision cited by Mr. Roe in support of his charge against the courts by one in which the rule laid down by judges has favored the poor man. Indeed, no one can study the decisions of English and American courts with care and candor without reaching the conclusion that the body of law thus developed is not the expression of class selfishness, but, on the contrary, is an honest and in the main an adequate system of principles under which justice can be fairly administered between litigants without respect to class, or rank, or condition.

This seems to be Mr. Coudert's view, for he declares that it is absurd to say that the doctrines of assumption of risk, contributory negligence, and of fellow servants were due to class bias on the part of the judges. Mr. Abbot condemns the fellow-servant rule, as well as the doctrine of assumption of risk by servants; but he ascribes their acceptance by English and American judges, not to the existence of class bias on their part, but to their mistaken assumption that a master's liability for the acts of his servants rests upon public policy. He declares that the "principle of legal responsibility for delegated acts had been recognized by the unanimous perceptions of mankind for a period which long preceded even the obscure beginnings of the common law." With all due respect for Mr. Abbot's learning and confidence, we do not hesitate to deny his assertion. The liability of a master under our law for the conduct of his servants extends beyond their expressly delegated acts, and includes their acts and omissions in the master's employment, though done in disregard of his general orders or special command. This liability is far more extensive than is recognized in other legal systems. It does not result from the unanimous perceptions of mankind, but has been slowly and cautiously evolved in English law and is deliberately based upon considerations of practical expediency.

Of the three books under consideration Mr. Coudert's is the best. It displays a wide and varied experience at the bar; a philosophic apprehension of legal principles, a keen wit, and a lucid style. It is interesting and instructive throughout. Mr. Abbot's volume is a real contribution to the literature of the law. While the reader will be reminded often of Sidney Smith's remark that he wished he were as sure of anything as Tom Macaulay was of everything, he will learn much that is worth knowing and be stimulated by many novel suggestions in legal science. Mr. Roe holds a brief against the courts, and argues his cause with all the zeal of counsel whose retainer is a contingent fee. His statements are frequently inaccurate; his views are partisan, and his conclusions not always trustworthy. The book is suited to stir up class hatred, to generate hostility to the courts, without sufficient cause, and to sow seeds of social mischief.

CURRENT FICTION.

His Great Adventure. By Robert Herrick. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Joan Thursday. By Louis Joseph Vance. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Of course, there is no good reason why a novelist should feel obliged to stick to the last of realism or of romance upon which he has chanced to shape the greater portion of his work. Mr. Arnold Bennett is our triumphant example of the workman who can turn his hand to anything, and the well-wishers who desire him to limit himself to Clayhangers and Old Wives' Tales rather amuse him. Mr. Robert Herrick, though he has evidently had to struggle from time to time with an impulse towards romance, has never hitherto omitted to struggle. In his latest book he frankly abandons what is for him "the legitimate," and steps forward to do his turn as a vaudeville artist. The result is not altogether happy. Mr. Herrick has done his best to be light and trivial, to give his new audience what it wants. Perhaps he has succeeded; as we scan the lists of best-sellers for the coming months, we shall know. A first impression is that his performance is too evidently that of an "amateur." His manner has a nervous jauntiness which does not convey the desired effect of high spirits.

The hero of the "great adventure" is an unsuccessful and penniless playwright. At the moment when he is ready to confess himself "down and out," he rescues a "doped" and dying millionaire from a New York gutter. The millionaire gives him a mysterious commission, involving the robbery of a safe in California, an escape to Europe by way of Mexico, and the eventual transference to a playwright's pocket of two millions in exchange for the abstracted securities. The millionaire has ordered that all the property (or loot) shall be given to "Melody." The hero is far slower than the reader in discovering that this name (like "Henrietta" of famous memory) belongs both to a mine and a girl. He develops the mine, and, though in some vague way he regards the property as a trust, proceeds to devote the profits to the founding of a national "People's Theatre" which shall reform all current abuses in connection with the stage. He seems to know less about theatrical conditions than any other person who can ever have written plays and tried to get them produced. However, since his absurd enterprise does finally reveal the real Melody to him

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(in the person of his only successful actress), one ought not to grumble. It is a pity that a writer of Mr. Herrick's inborn seriousness should strain himself to produce such laborious nonsense as this.

Mr. Vance's nonsense has never been laborious. His Brass Bowls and Black Bags, however fantastic in design, have contained the spirit of youth and adventure. And now, behold, he abandons that happy field of sophomoric achievement, and presents a story of "real" life—more consistently realistic than anything Mr. Herrick has ever done. He also appeals to a fresh audience—Mr. Herrick's audience. And for this he thinks it unnecessary—or inexpedient—to employ fresh materials. In the skeleton, this present plot is strongly like that of Mr. Herrick's "One Woman's Life," which, in its turn, recalls Mr. Dreiser's "Jennie Gerhardt." Joan Thursday is a girl of low class, though not without trace of better blood than is usually to be found in a New York tenement. She is beautiful and pleasure-loving, and her home life is unspeakably tawdry and distasteful. She is always pursued by men, and at last, discharged from her counter because she has refused the advances of a floor-walker, she is thrown into the street by her angry father. Good luck prevents her from becoming a woman of the street; but she has the temperament, and, short of that, falls as low as she may, morally, in the course of mounting her ladder towards success. She is faithful to nobody, to nothing except her ambition to be admired, to rouse the desire of all men. The type is common enough, and this re-study of it is so skilfully done that the lover of realism, in the best sense, will not be likely to dismiss it as "unpleasant."

The Marriage of Mlle. Gimel. By René Bazin. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Some of these short stories have already appeared in a volume called "Humble Love," which was withdrawn from circulation. The author has rescued several of the condemned stories and added the "Marriage of Mlle. Gimel," which is the longest of the tales in the present volume. M. Bazin has here put aside pastoral surroundings and their influence upon character and has placed his struggling poor in the heart of the city of Paris. The problem he deals with is of a kind hitherto untouched by him. Mlle. Gimel is a poor stenographer, pretty, simple, and unaffected. An army officer, who has seen her daily at breakfast in a humble dairy room, falls in love with her and proposes marriage. The girl presents her suitor to her mother. To avert a stain upon the honor of the army, the mother sees fit to acquaint Evelyne with the fact that she is merely a child whom Mme. Gimel had adopted from a foundling asylum. The girl accordingly refuses to marry her officer, and he, for the honor of the army, leaves her. But things end happily.

In the "Little Sisters of the Poor" the writer returns to rural life. It is a sketch of a poor man's soul. Père Le Bolloche had been the handsomest man in his regiment, but is now a humble chair-weaver and fallen on hard days. His one solace is his daughter, Désirée. For her sake proud Père Le Bolloche decides to eat the bread of charity, and to end his days with the "Little Sisters of the Poor." There he revives. The strong, incisive strokes with which M. Bazin draws his simple, blunt country folk show him once more a master of the pastoral.

Madeleine at Her Mirror: A Woman's Diary. By Marcelle Tinayre. Authorized translation by Winifred Stevens. New York: John Lane Co.

This "is not a novel," the author explains, "but a collection of impressions, of dreams, and of memories, in which fiction mingles with fact." It belongs, that is, to a type of literature, increasingly popular these days, which permits a writer to deal in little intimacies of life without the risk of being charged either with making a bald confession or with setting up formally as a critic. It is a compromise in which the usual French and English manners are blended, and the result is happy. For English readers, at least, the self-revelation of the French profits by a slight veil of fiction.

The narrator of these chapters is a well-to-do widow of thirty-five, the mother of two children, and the possessor of town and country houses. Parisian fashions, entertaining, the importunities of lovers, the splendor of spring and autumn in the country, foreign politics, apartment-hunting for relatives, together with a slight concern over advancing age—to note a few of the topics chosen—are commonplaces the world over. Yet Mme. Tinayre bestows on them the charm of good taste and of shrewd observation; and contrives, seemingly through sheer artlessness, to create scenes which are almost faultless in technique.

A Fool and His Money. By George Barr McCutcheon. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Mr. McCutcheon's fool is an American—novelist by trade—who, thanks to a liberal legacy, can indulge his predilection for the feudal age by purchasing a dilapidated castle on the Danube. He thinks to find in this picturesque ruin a "quiet, inspirational spot" where he may prosecute his literary labors under ideally romantic conditions. But no sooner has he taken up his residence in its draughty halls than he finds himself actively involved in a very modern drama of international divorce. Such, indeed, are the complications—social, financial, and sentimental—in which his proprietary responsibilities have involved the chivalrous novelist, that he does not hesitate at the first opportunity to sell Schloss Rothhoefen at a generous profit, and follow the heroine across the Atlantic with all speed.

In the way of doughty deeds we find to record only two opportune punches delivered upon the offending heads of masculine impertinents—a sad falling off from those days of daring do when the "Prisoner of Zenda" and "Graustark" were household words.

THE EARLY AMERICAN NAVY.

A Naval History of the American Revolution. By Gardner W. Allen. In two volumes. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $3 net.

Dr. Allen is a master of source material, and has given us the story of many events for which we might look elsewhere in vain. Much of the space devoted to adventure is, indeed, a sort of Homeric catalogue of ships, accurate and thorough enough, but dry as the remaining biscuit after a voyage. All the painful details of the chase to leeward and the chase to the windward, of fighting on the larboard side, and "luffing across," and of "raking the decks," and of the conduct of the wounded and of their sufferings, told over and over, in engagement after engagement, become wearisome and confusing. They might interest an Annapolis freshman as supplementary reading, but the book seems to have another aim. Some accounts, as that of the New Providence expedition, are made tedious by giving in succession three or four contemporary, and often contradictory, accounts in the language of an untutored sailor or ship's officer, instead of furnishing the results of a critical comparison of the several original stories. This uncritical attitude extends to accepting even a single newspaper account (Vol. I, p. 76). These indifferently written contemporary narratives are often given at great length, to the utter perplexity of the reader as to what really happened. The style of the author, himself, is that of one solemnly presenting information; there is none of the charm of the eager narrator who attracts by his own enthusiasm. Nor does he show sense of proportion. Yet this is not the result of helplessness in the presence of a task too great, for now and then there are very valuable and comprehensive summaries of general conditions.

In spite of these failings, the work contains much that is valuable. It has

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the best available account in English of the French evasion of the neutrality laws, before the day of open alliance, by the devious process of inaction, denial, and imperturbable prevarication. The author corrects some common errors of thinking in showing that, while man for man and ship for ship the British overmatched the Americans, their material for crews was no better than that furnished by the seafaring population of New England, if as good. Even their immense advantage of centuries of military discipline, naval tradition, and *esprit de corps*, was lessened by the incompetency and indolence of some of the British fleet commanders, and the official corruption in British dockyards and naval stations. Moreover, if American captures of British property on the seas inflicted no great injury in proportion to the whole, yet in the early years of the war they were of the utmost importance. But for these supplies the cause would have languished and died. Mr. Allen calculates that more than two thousand American vessels were employed in privateering in the Revolution. These and the Continental navy succeeded in keeping open communications with European countries and sustaining foreign interest and sympathy, especially in France. If the British, as Lord Barrington recommended, could have suppressed this commerce and communication, they would probably have strangled the rebellion in its infancy, and without the help of an army. Mr. Allen concludes that on the whole the injury done to the British navy by the American naval forces was almost negligible, and to the British commerce far from disabling, though not without effect in the general result.

Manuel d'Archéologie Américaine. Amérique préhistorique—Civilisations disparues. Par H. Beuchat. Préface par Henry Vignaud. Paris: A. Picard et Fils. 815 pages. 15 francs.

Pierre d'Ailly et la Découverte de l'Amérique. Par Louis Salembier. Paris: Letouzey et Ané. 56 pages.

Améric Vespuce: Ses Voyages et ses Découvertes devant la critique. 43 pages. L'attribution de son nom au Nouveau Monde. 60 pages. Par Henry Vignaud. Paris: E. Leroux.

Les Thèses nouvelles sur l'origine de Christophe Colomb: Espagnol! Juif! Corse! Par Henry Vignaud. Paris: E. Leroux. 1913. 20 pages.

The publication of a full Manual of American Archæology, complete to date, should be reckoned an event. In his preface to the stout volume of M. Beuchat, the experienced Henry Vignaud says:

> It answers all that we can expect rightfully from a work of this kind. Its publication is in advance of any work of like character in Germany or England or America, rich as they are in writings on the matter. It does honor to French Americanism. Compliments are due for it to the publisher who has chosen to add it to his fine collection of archæological manuals—and to the American Mæcenas whose encouragement has enabled the author to bring to a good end his long and difficult labor, unique of its kind.

The book is dedicated "to the enlightened protector of American studies and of all researches relative to the New Continent—the Duc de Loubat."

The completeness of the work and the necessity of it may be plainly seen from a summary of the contents. From the beginning, there are twenty-five close pages of bibliography in the order of subjects treated; and this is further supplemented by the copious references of the footnotes in the course of the work. Abbreviations also refer to fifty-four special periodical publications. An introduction of eighty-six pages (five chapters) treats of the discovery of America—in its physical conditions of winds and ocean currents, Pacific and Atlantic; reputed discoveries by Chinese and Scandinavians, and the history of Greenland; voyages reported through the ages in search of land westward from Europe; discoveries of Christopher Columbus; and other voyages of discovery of the sixteenth century from the Cabots to Balboa, and the exploration of the North American coast.

The first part of the first book (eleven chapters) is devoted to prehistoric North America, from the glacial period down. The second part (two chapters) deals with South America—its fossil men and Neolithic age.

Book second (475 pages) is a methodical and exhaustive study of all that is known of the civilized native peoples of America.

In his pages of conclusion, the author touches on a subject whose full treatment would have required a longer study of the uncivilized peoples of America than the limits of his book would allow. It is the obscure question of the peopling of the different parts of the New World. Many hypotheses are enumerated from the European discovery to our own day, finding for Indians and Eskimos a descent from the lost tribes of Israel, Mongols, Carthaginians, French Cave Dwellers; or, vice-versa, making America itself the Eden whence lost Atlantis and Europe were peopled. A survey of the state of these peoples prior to European discovery leads to a final conclusion:

> On the one hand, Europeans were too civilized when they discovered America to be obliged to borrow greatly from its inhabitants. On the other hand, the nature of the New Continent was not different enough from that of the Old to require any adoption of the habits of the aborigines. Thus the influence of America on Europe really begins only after the formation of European centres in the New World.

Besides the analytical table of contents, there are twenty-seven pages of finely printed, double-columned Index. Truly, a full book, ready and serviceable for every reader interested in America of the pre-European past.

The pamphlet of M. Salembier gives a lucid summary of a question that is of some importance in recent Columbian controversy—the nature of Pierre d'Ailly's cosmographic notions, and particularly at what period of his career Christopher Columbus made his acquaintance with them. The author ends by touching on another question more or less remotely connected with the former—whether the human heroism of Columbus, which nobody denies, was supplemented by all-round religious virtue such as the Church demands in her canonized saints. He refers to a little-known discussion of the subject by Henry Vignaud (*Journal de la Société des Américanistes de Paris*, 1909), and contributes the following unpublished opinion of the competent Bollandists:

> Thanks to a communication with which they have honored us, we know that they admire Columbus as a hero, but they have never dreamed of putting him forward and having him venerated as one of the Blessed.

Since the completion of his great work on Columbus, Mr. Henry Vignaud has published two notices of Americus Vespucius, from whom we have our name, if not our local habitation. The critical investigation of authentic and contemporary documents has made such rapid progress that novelty as well as interest attaches to these competent accounts of what is now known of the real voyages and discoveries of Vespucius, and how his name came to be given to the New World which Columbus had discovered:

> Yet the work of Vespucius was considerable. While Columbus opened the way for him, as he did for Cortes and Pizarro and all the Conquistadores, it is also true that to the Florentine navigator alone belongs the merit of knowing what he had discovered—a fact undeniable to-day.

In a few sufficient pages, M. Vignaud executes recent light-weight hypotheses making Columbus a Spaniard or Jew or Corsican by race.

Problems of Power: A Study of International Politics, from Sadowa to Kirk-Kilissé. By William Morton Fullerton. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.25 net.

Educated at Andover Academy and Harvard, and for twenty years resident in France as Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, Mr. Fullerton has enjoyed a cosmopolitan training and unusual opportunities for feeling the hidden threads of European diplomacy and

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finance which centre in the French capital. His book is the most interesting volume in English on recent international politics since the publication of Tardieu's "France and the Alliances" five years ago. It surpasses the latter in breadth of scope and richness of style; in fact, its brilliant paradoxes and frequent allusions to undescribed diplomatic events may prove caviare to Americans who do not read foreign news with some attention.

Mr. Fullerton starts with the general thesis that two occult powers behind the façade of governments are now determining the destinies of the world. The first is "the disseminated wealth of the democracy, canalized both by the plutocratic oligarchy of the bankers, whose clients, the modern states, are constrained to apply to them for immense loans, and by the great manufacturers and mining proprietors, who tend to be actuated solely by economic interest"; and the other is "the mysterious pervasive force known as public opinion, which is becoming more and more conscious of its efficacy." He then sketches the rise of the United States as a world Power, as typified in the career of Mr. Roosevelt, and contrasts his influence as President in the United States with the lack of influence of Presidents in the French Republic. He thinks that the extraordinary enthusiasm with which Mr. Roosevelt was received in France in 1909 was due to the fact that the ex-President personified ideals and methods for which all France was yearning. Mr. Fullerton's analysis of the domestic politics of France—her need of a stronger President, of a change from scrutin d'arrondissement to scrutin de liste, of a "constructive nationalism," and of a firm foreign policy—is the best-informed and most valuable part of his volume. For forty years, from the dismemberment of France in 1871 until German aggression was rebuffed at Agadir in 1911, France was unfortunately distracted with the internal crises of monarchism, Romanism, Boulangism, Panamism, Dreyfusism, and Syndicalism. French politicians were so absorbed in party passions that they sacrificed the external national interests of their country and allowed France to become the plaything of Bismarck's malign manœuvres on the European chessboard. But since the time when Germany began to bully France in Morocco and France established an entente cordiale with England (April 8, 1904), France has begun to "float on the high tide of one of those miraculous moral 'resurgences' peculiar to the soil that has given birth to Vercingetorix, St. Louis, Joan of Arc, and Gambetta."

Her true policy now, thinks the author, is to exert herself internationally as an active, cordial, and self-reliant member of the Triple Entente in the North Sea, the Mediterranean, the Caribbean, and wherever else her interests are threatened by German aggression. Besides putting her own domestic political house in order, France must

> construct on her Eastern frontier a canal permitting Dunkirk to become a rival of Antwerp, the iron-masters of the Meurthe and Moselle to buy their coal in England instead of Germany, and the whole French industrial world to break loose from the bonds now linking them to their German rivals (p. 266).

She must not loan so much of her capital on foreign credit until she has more adequately supplied the financial needs of the small shopkeeper and small manufacturer in France. When the Panama Canal is opened, she must build around the globe, a little to the south of the British "All-Red Route," a French "All-Blue Route"—

> from Tahiti through the Canal, by Guadeloupe and Martinique to Dakar, thence to Bordeaux and Brest, and, by the Rhone Valley, to Marseilles, where, once again taking to the sea, and skirting the North African coast from Algiers to Bizerta, it proceeds through the Suez Canal to Jibutil in the Persian Gulf, and to the Grand Comores, Madagascar, and La Réunion in the Indian Ocean. It then turns northward, touching Asia at Saigon; and passing thence to the north of Australia, finds in the New Hebrides and in New Caledonia (where Australia may one day procure the iron of which she stands in need) its last station before it is riveted again at Tahiti, in mid-Pacific (p. 314).

France must also reëstablish friendly relations with the Vatican. More than all else, she must not forget "the intolerable crime and egregious blunder of the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine."

From what has been said, the reader will have surmised that Mr. Fullerton does not look down upon mundane affairs with Jovian impartiality; in fact, his volume is the neatest statement we have seen in English of the French feeling of rage and impotency at German power and success. The choice of sub-title, "from Sadowa to Kirk-Kilissé," is due to the fact that these two points, in the author's opinion, mark the limits during which Bismarck's malign influence has been in the ascendant:

> Bismarck retarded the work of the French Revolution, gagging France and flinging Europe back into the old régime. . . . The normal evolution of every nation in Europe has been disturbed, if not utterly deranged, by the action of Germany in annexing Schleswig-Holstein and in seizing the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. The trend of European history during the last forty years has been determined by these titanic blunders (p. 43).

Space forbids us to follow, and much less to criticise, the ingenious chain of diplomatic detail by which the author sustains this thesis. We note, however, that he makes no effort apparently to get at Germany's side of the case; he quotes almost no German newspapers or books; what are we to expect of one who draws his information about Germans from French newspapers or works with such suggestive titles as Blondel's "Les Embarras de l'Allemagne" and Gaston's "L'Allemagne aux Abois"?

Mr. Fullerton's advice to Americans, based on his long observation of European politics, is that they wake up to a realization of their new rights and duties as a World Power. It is the familiar theme of Gen. Homer Lea and Admiral Mahan. When the Panama Canal is opened, the geographical centre of gravity will shift from the Mediterranean to the Caribbean; national isolation, freedom from entangling alliances, will no longer be possible for the United States; "Americans must henceforth reason and act as political animals, in conformity with the prejudices and customs of the Old World"; in other words, they must build a strong navy.

In spite of Mr. Fullerton's sarcastic denunciations of Bismarck and Germany, which are curiously inconsistent with his own worship of the divine right of brute force and with his recommendations to France and the United States, his book is valuable and stimulating. It deserves Mr. Roosevelt's natural commendation, cited in the publisher's announcement: "Every American with any interest in the future of his country ought to be familiar with the facts which Mr. Fullerton sets forth."

Notes

We may expect this week from Houghton Mifflin the following titles: "The Memoirs of Li Hung Chang," edited by W. F. Mannix, with an introduction by John W. Foster; "Picturesque New Zealand," by Paul Gooding; "The Man with the Iron Hand," by John C. Parish, the first of a series of tales of the Great Valley, edited by B. F. Shambaugh; "Some Letters of William Vaughn Moody," edited by Daniel G. Mason; "The Spare Room," by Mrs. Romilly Fedden, and "Dandies and Men of Letters," by Leon H. Vincent.

Among the books which Putnams publish this week are: "The Happy Prince and Other Tales," by Oscar Wilde, a quarto edition illustrated by Charles Robinson, and "Memoirs of a Prima Donna," by Clara Louise Kellogg (Mme. Strakosch).

Two new novels by Mary W. Findlater, "A Narrow Way" and "Betty Musgrave," will be brought out in this country by Dutton.

The same house announces: Rudolph Herzog's "The Story of Helga," in an English version by Adèle Lewisohn, and "Snow Upon the Desert," by Miss S. Macnaughton.

Mr. George Hamlin Fitch has written a companion volume to his "Critic in the Orient," entitled "The Critic in the Occident"; it is announced by Paul Elder & Co. Mr. Elder has in preparation "Some World-

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Circuit Saunterings," by William Ford Nichols.

The Century Co. issues this week: "Romantic America," by Robert Haven Schauffler; "The Trade of the World," by James Davenport Whelpley; and "The Truth About Camilla," by Gertrude Hall.

Among the early autumn publications announced by Moffat, Yard & Co. are: "The Life of Louis XI and Charles the Bold," by Lieut.-Col. Andrew C. P. Haggard; "Social Sanity," by Scott Nearing, of the University of Pennsylvania; "The Panama Canal," pictures in color and text, by Earle Harrison; "When Mother Lets Us Act," by Stella G. S. Perry; "The Spider's Web," a new novel from the pen of Reginald Wright Kauffman; "The New Dawn," a new story by Agnes C. Laut; "The Memoirs of Mimosa," a volume of reminiscences told in the form of fiction, and edited by Anne Elliot; "The Cur and the Coyote," by Edward Peple; "Vestigia," a volume of verse by Algernon S. Logan; and "Milton: A Study of His Time and Poetry," by Alden Sampson.

This week John Lane Company is bringing out: "Anthony Trollope: His Work, Associates, and Literary Originals," by T. H. S. Escott; "Japanese Flower Arrangement," by Mary Averill (Kwashinsai Kiyokumai); "A Wand and Strings," poems by Benjamin R. C. Low; "The Gathering Storm," a criticism of society by "A Rifleman," and "Concessions," a story by Sydney Schiff.

Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's "T. Tembarom" is to be issued in a few weeks by the Century Co.

Among the volumes which will come this autumn from the Columbia University Press are the following: "A Catalogue of the Persian Manuscripts presented to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City," by Alexander Smith Cochran, prepared and edited by Prof. A. V. Williams Jackson; "Chaucer and the Roman de la Rose," by Dean S. Fransler; "Root-Determinatives in Semitic Speech," by S. T. H. Hurwitz; "The Dative of Agency, a Chapter of Indo-Iranian Case Syntax," by Alexander Green; "Gnomic Poetry in Anglo-Saxon," by Blanche Colton Williams, and "Sumerian Records from Drehem," by William M. Nesbit.

Philippine problems will share with Indian affairs the chief interest of the thirty-first annual Lake Mohonk Conference of Friends of the Indian and other Dependent Peoples, which will meet at Lake Mohonk, N. Y., October 22-24. Attention will also be given to conditions in Porto Rico. About two hundred and fifty members, most of whom have personal knowledge of the subjects discussed, will attend as the guests of Mr. Daniel Smiley, by whom the conference is called. Dr. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Chancellor of New York University, will preside.

In public library work among all the peoples of the world Baroda, a native state of India, holds a leading place. Connected with the Government is the Central Library Department, which not only maintains one of the finest libraries in India in the capital city, but also circulates books throughout the state in travelling libraries which remain at each village three months, when fresh books are furnished. The department also gives about $100 a year for the purchase of books for the local libraries to every village whose inhabitants subscribe an equal amount. There are now 275 public libraries with about 156,000 books, and the number of readers within the last three years is said to have increased nearly 360 per cent. The eldest son of the Maharaja, it may be added, graduated at Harvard in 1911.

"The Publisher" (Houghton Mifflin), by Robert S. Yard, contains four breezy essays on the art and science of publishing. In the first the new editor of the *Century* controverts the opinion that publishing is the worst possible trade. Few offer more fascinating and difficult problems. Next is discussed why a book sells. Primarily, Mr. Yard thinks, for incalculable reasons—because it is the sort of thing many people want at a particular time—then, in minor degree, because of the enthusiasm and conviction which the publisher infuses into his entire selling staff. There is cited the instance of a rather poor book which was carried into wide popularity through the sheer infatuation of its sponsor. It is shown that a best seller, except so far as it incidentally enlivens the whole business, may be a doubtful gain. Mr. Yard's figures for a best seller netting the publisher only twenty-five hundred dollars for a hundred thousand sold will be regarded with general skepticism. If on a scale of sales in the hundred thousands it normally costs 28 per cent. of gross income to do business, apart from manufacture and extraordinary advertising, we would all better stop buying books until the publishing business has been put in order by an efficiency expert. Salesmanship is treated interestingly, especially with regard to the improvement of canvassing for subscription editions. A wholly reasonable light is also put upon the movement to maintain net prices. In fact, the Government departments have recently taken towards breakfast foods and the like at fixed prices a more friendly attitude than was formerly held towards books. In discussing the relations of author, publisher, and agent, Mr. Yard feels that direct dealing is better and an agency is an unnecessary evil, except when the author cannot get sight of his publisher or editor. Authors, like poets, are an irritable race and prone to unreasonable dissatisfactions. To change one's publisher is generally to do ill. That is sound advice. We note that henceforward all poetry must be published at the author's expense. Irritability may be expected to increase accordingly among the singing clan. Generally informing and always entertaining, the manner of the book is journalistic and undistinguished. The old-school publisher, when betrayed into authorship, managed to imply a pedestal beneath him. Some publishers even graced the pose. Mr. Yard is, though enthusiastic, quite without such illusions about his trade. It seems to us that old-school publishing was none the worse for what may have been an illusion of championship of literature. The conception of literature as such barely intrudes in Mr. Yard's vivacious pages.

"The World's Leading Conquerors," by W. L. Bevan, is the latest volume in the biographical series of the World's Leaders (Holt), edited by Prof. W. P. Trent. Successive chapters tell of Alexander the Great, Cæsar, Charlemagne, the Ottoman Sultans from Osman to Suleiman the Magnificent, the Spanish Conquistadores like Cortez and Pizarro, and of Napoleon. In this wide field of history Mr. Bevan succeeds admirably in selecting the best recent material, including the products of German scholarship, and in writing very readable and yet accurate biographical sketches. He gives more than a mere personal narrative of the life of each conqueror, for he has interwoven in most cases a very fair general historical account of the period in which the conqueror lived. He also avoids the easy mistake of giving too much space to military history; he makes space to suggest the less visible elements which have ushered in great changes in history. There are portraits of the conquerors, but no maps of their territories or plans of their battles.

In spite of its sounding title, it does not need the preface to William Arkwright's "Knowledge and Life" (Lane) to tell us that several of the essays of the volume are reprinted from the newspapers. This is less from the subject matter, curiously ill adapted even to British journalistic needs, than from a general looseness of construction. The book's title is gained from a half-dozen little disquisitions upon Christian and Buddhistic philosophy, irritatingly purposeless and obscure of phrase. Mingled inharmoniously with them are several subjective sketches of African travel, equally pointless, and two simple London tales, which succeed in striking a sturdier note. What the writer may originally have designed was an attempt to interpret or comment upon the chief religious legends; but the motley contents betray an ultimate eagerness to fill up the volume with mere random productions. Of interest is the occasional exhibition of a late-romantic malady of style, where the writer abandons all sincerity of tone, and, as he self-consciously puts it, attempts "to gild with glamour the edges of the commonplace and print its titles in amaranth, to entice from the empyrean, as formerly the daughters of men did entice the sons of God, that spirit of the green flame, by name Inspiration." From this the two London stories are refreshingly free.

God sifted a whole nation that He might send choice grain over into this wilderness, declared an eminent citizen of Massachusetts nearly two centuries and a half ago. Since three out of every four of our present-day immigrants come, says Frederic J. Haskin in "The Immigrant" (Revell), from countries where public education is unheard of, where popular participation in the affairs of the government is undreamed of, where dire poverty is the rule, it is manifest that the immigration problem is much graver than in the day of William Stoughton. Frank Julian Warne in "The Immigrant Invasion" (Dodd, Mead), and Henry Pratt Fairchild in "Immigration" (Macmillan), have also collected a great amount of material on this subject. Each of these three writers presents the immigrant in a way to quicken imagination and stir the political consciousness. As we see him on the dock, he may command but a scant amount of our attention, but when, as in the works before us, he appears as the product of the vast economic, religious, and political eruptions of the ages, he becomes

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absorbingly significant. For we cannot forget that the history of immigration has been a history of successive waves of population, from sources ever lower in the economic, if not in the social, scale. If it has seemed at any time that this country was about to adjust itself to a certain racial admixture, a new and more difficult element has presented itself. And the end appears far from sight. The process will go on, declares Mr. Fairchild, who recalls an assertion of Gen. Walker that immigration by the lowest class "will not be permanently stopped so long as any difference of economic level exists between our population and that of the most degraded communities abroad." This assertion, which amounts to the fact that population, like money, will always seek the best market, may seem discouraging. Yet the opposite would occasion even greater apprehension; for, except to the extent that restriction is actually accomplished by law, a cessation of the stream of immigration to the United States can only mean that economic conditions in this country have fallen to so low a pitch that it is no longer worth while for the citizens of the meanest and most backward foreign country to make the moderate effort to get here.

It is curious to note that while the general tendency of economic thought has been steadily away from *laissez-faire*, that doctrine still has a firm grasp on the mind with reference to immigration. To be sure, there may be signs of a theoretic limitation of it, in the immigration laws which we have incorporated in our statute books in the last thirty years. But, after all, the movement has increased rather than diminished, and is incontestably of a *laissez-faire* character. In its other operations, economics has been more and more subjected to the interplay of political, sociological, and even biological considerations. In this particular field there has been virtually no effort to suppress its cry of hands off. Conceivably, this is largely because of the difficulty of agreeing on an alternative. Apparently we have not sufficiently considered the pros and cons to know whether restriction would be likely to prove a blessing or a bane.

The first volume of A. A. Wotzel's translation from the Dutch of Pierson's "Principles of Economics," dealing with the subjects of value in exchange and money, appeared in 1902. A second volume (Macmillan), treating of production and the revenue of the state, now completes the work. The two volumes together thus cover the ground traditionally embraced in general treatises on political economy. The work is, therefore, similar in scope to the well-known textbooks of Marshall, Nicholson, and Taussig. Dr. Pierson may be classified, despite his apparent eclecticism, as a disciple of Mill and the older English economists. His system of economics was evidently formulated at a time when the English classical school exercised a predominant influence over Continental economists, and, well acquainted as he is with the newer currents of thought, he remains consistently a Ricardian of the Ricardians. The theories of the Austrian school constitute the ornamentation rather than the substance of his treatment of value. Also, in the relative amount of space assigned to different topics he shows his affinity with the classical school. The discussions, for instance, of the nature of production and of the Malthusian doctrine bulk more largely than in other recent treatises. The work has two prime virtues which make it an important addition to the general textbooks of political economy. More nearly than any of its rivals, it is cosmopolitan in its economic learning. The author was intimately acquainted with the writings of the English economists and the rich economic literature of his own country, and hardly less familiar with the German and French authorities. The other great merit of the work is its admirable practicality. The author was both an economist and a statesman—a university professor and for some years Prime Minister of Holland. The combination of qualities which made this career possible distinguishes the discussion throughout. The refinements of economic reasoning are always curbed by a vigorous common sense. This quality is best displayed in the present volume in the section dealing with the revenue of the state, probably the sanest and clearest treatment of the subject to be found within the same compass in English.

Among a number of European publications on the Balkan war, each of which recounts the observations of one man, Henri Dugard's "Histoire de la Guerre contre les Turcs" (Paris: Les Marches de l'Est) distinguishes itself by giving an account of the whole conflict from the outbreak of hostilities in October, 1912, to the signing of the treaty of London in the following May. M. Dugard relies largely on the correspondents of various newspapers; but he has balanced their statements against one another so judiciously that the resulting narrative, if journalistic in style, is accurate and informing. "It is at present impossible," he observes, "to say the last word about the recent conflicts; but we can even now bring a little order out of the various reports that we have, and present a concise story of the events that followed one another so rapidly." He attempts to be perfectly impartial and simply to relate the facts; but his sympathies are evidently with the Balkan allies. One reason for this is found in his dislike of Germany; he admires the good qualities of the Turks, and attributes their defeat largely to "their mediocre Krupp guns and the stupidity of their German instructors." He urges the Balkan nations, including Rumania, to rely more on the friendship of Russia and France, and to distrust Germany and Austria. It is to be hoped that a new edition of this book, or a separate volume, will give an equally clear account of the war between Bulgaria and the other Balkan states, and of the resulting advantage to Turkey. The proper names are carelessly and inconsistently printed, and there is a rather poor map extending only from Adrianople to Constantinople.

The Cornell University Library has recently issued the sixth volume of Islandica, an annual relating to Iceland and the Fiske Icelandic collection at Cornell. This latest number, entitled "Icelandic Authors of To-day," is virtually a Who's Who. In sixty-nine pages, it gives, in bio-bibliographical form, sketches varying in length from a few lines to two or three pages. The term author is construed generously to cover not only *belles-lettres*, but science, journalism, philosophy, theology, medicine, jurisprudence, and politics. The number of entries and the wide range of interests shown by the titles quoted will be a surprise to persons unacquainted with the contemporary activities of Iceland. An appendix gives a list of books and essays relating to Icelandic literature since 1550. This book is the work of Halldor Hermannsson, curator of the Fiske Library.

The preface to the thirty-fourth volume of the Goethe-Jahrbuch (Literarische Anstalt), which appeared recently, contains the announcement that with this volume the publication of the annual ceases. Its place is to be taken by a new annual to be called Das Jahrbuch der Goethe-Gesellschaft. The change is due to a lack of harmony that has existed for several years between the editor of the Goethe-Jahrbuch, Prof. Ludwig Geiger, of the University of Berlin, and the ruling spirits of the Goethe Society. The separation was finally caused by the refusal on the part of the Society to subsidize the annual after this year. When Geiger published the first volume in 1880 there was no Goethe Society and the new venture relied upon its own merits for its prosperity. The seventh volume (1886) contained the first annual report of the Society, which was founded shortly after the death of the last descendant of Goethe (1885) and the opening of the Goethe Archives in Weimar. The new Society entered into an agreement with Geiger and his publisher whereby the Goethe-Jahrbuch became the official organ of the Society and a copy was to be purchased annually for each member. There were at that time nearly 1,700 members, and since then the number has gradually increased till to-day there are nearly 3,700. Naturally, the Jahrbuch became an attractive organ of communication among Goethe scholars, and for years its list of contributors contained the names of most of the prominent specialists. In recent years, however, these names have become more and more rare in the list and their places have been taken by others of less authority. Furthermore, the Archives have ceased to put hitherto unpublished material at the disposal of the editor. The reflection of scholarship has been partially obscured by the reflection of partisanship. In spite of this, Geiger deserves great credit for his part in the history of the annual, which will always remain one of the important sets in a Goethe library. The new Jahrbuch is to be edited by the eminent Goethe specialist, Prof. Hans Gerhard Gräf, of Weimar, which assures the confidence of scholars and the coöperation of the Weimar Archives.

The appeal of South America as a "land of adventure" is still strong. Opportunity to exaggerate in an entertaining manner without the danger of being contradicted is irresistible. Some writers are a bit too cautious, so that the publishers allow the illustrators to go beyond the text in satisfying the popular appetite. A good example of the breezy and entertaining books of this sort is Mr. Charles Johnson Post's "Across the Andes" (Outing Pub. Co.). The only difference here is that the illustrations are by the author, whose fondness for getting effects has led him too often to abandon his camera (if he had one) for his very ready pencil. The fact that some of

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the pictures are improperly labelled and some of the text considerably exaggerated will not spoil the book for the ordinary reader. The story begins with an opera-bouffe introduction in Panama, and meanders mysteriously down the West Coast, credulously including the usual smoking-room stories of Chinamen being suffocated in the ship's fumigating boiler and passengers being robbed between decks after dark. The photographs of street scenes in Lima and Arequipa are typical of Peru, but do not happen to be of the cities to which they have been assigned. Arequipa beer is not "green," and the summit of the pass of the Southern Railways of Peru is not "something over fifteen thousand feet above sea level." The picture of a balsa on Lake Titicaca is grossly exaggerated, and in general the first half of the book might better have been left unwritten. The second part, describing Mr. Post's journey overland from La Paz to the River Mapiri, the Falls of the Madeira, and the Amazon, describes a country that is only too little known, a circumstance which makes all the more provoking the fact that one cannot be absolutely sure of the author's accuracy of description. The book lacks both index and map—even "Treasure Island" had a map.

An experiment in the gradation of elementary Hebrew textbooks is made by the Rev. D. Tyssil Evans in "The Principles of Hebrew Grammar" (London: Luzac & Co.), the first part of which deals with the forms of the language. The work is intended for the use of an intermediate grade of students, those "who wish to make a serious study of Hebrew, though they may not be able to carry it to a very advanced stage." The phonology and morphology are given in considerable detail, following mainly Gesenius-Rautzsch (the twenty-eighth edition) and König. The arrangement is clear, and the treatment scholarly. Exercises in reading and writing Hebrew are added, with an English-Hebrew vocabulary. The work is an excellent guide for students; but as this first part is a stout volume of above five hundred pages, and the second part, to be devoted to the syntax, will not be of very much less extent, the cost of the whole work will be relatively great. Whether the addition of the exercises in writing is desirable for the class of students had in mind may be doubtful. When learners are familiar with the forms of a language, it is an advantage to them to come in contact with the living speech in the literature; exercises are more or less dead material. The detailed criticisms of the origin of inflectional endings and prefixes does not come within the scope of the present volume; such remarks as are made on this point are usually well considered, but it may be noted that the second syllable of *ro'eh* (p. 109) is not a special indication of gender, but the ordinary final form of the masculine participle in Lamed-He verbs, the syllable *eh* belonging to the stem.

The publication of the Epistle to the Romans and the Second Epistle of Peter with the Epistle of Jude, leaves only two books, Ephesians and First Peter, to complete the Cambridge Greek Testament for Schools and Colleges (Putnam). These editions, like the others in this series, have extensive introductions and commentaries. Being designed for college students, controversy concerning matters of doctrine is avoided as much as possible, and attention is directed rather to the meaning of the Greek and the peculiarities of New Testament usage. Even so, however, the notes are very extensive and sometimes overloaded. In the Introduction to the Romans the editor, R. St. John Parry, holds that the epistle is genuine and integral, rejecting the suggestion that it is a combination of two letters. He also regards it with most critics as Paul's complete exposition of his religious views due to his desire to commend himself to a church not founded by himself, but whose assistance was needed for the prosecution of his projected missionary work in Spain. In the introduction to Second Peter and Jude, the editor, Montague Rhodes James, upholds the genuineness of Jude, but is inclined to regard Second Peter as a later production whose author had Jude before him as he wrote.

The Rev. Henry Prentice Forbes, since 1889 dean of the Theological School at St. Lawrence University, Canton, N. Y., died at his home in Canton on Friday. Dr. Forbes was born at Paris, Me., in 1849, graduated from St. Lawrence University in 1873, and then studied at Leipzig. He was the author of "The Johannine Literature and Acts."

The death is reported from London of the Rev. Dr. Patrick Augustine Sheehan, essayist and lecturer and Canon of Cloyne, Ireland. He was born at Mallow, County Cork, in 1852. His principal writings are: "Geoffrey Austin, Student," "The Triumph of Failure," "Lost Angel of a Ruined Paradise," "Under Cedars and Stars," "Cithara Mea" (poems), "The Queen's Fillet," and "Miriam Lucas."

Science

The Influence of Monarchs: Steps in a New Science of History. By Frederick Adams Woods, M.D. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2 net.

This volume is a continuation of the statistical study published by Mr. Woods in 1906 on "Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty." It is the application of biometric methods to the field of history. It aims at the establishment of a new science which the author has baptized "historiometry," and at a new philosophy of history which is to be called "the gametic interpretation of history."

The author's method, very briefly, is as follows: He takes all of the 368 monarchs who have ruled from the tenth to the end of the eighteenth century in fourteen of the principal countries of Europe, and rates them, on the basis of what historians and encyclopædias say about them, in three grades according to "intellectual qualities" as superior, average or mediocre, and inferior, or as he prefers to call them, "plus" (+), "plus or minus" (±), and "minus" (—). Similarly, in a parallel column, he rates the "condition of the country" in each of the 368 reigns in three grades as "plus," "plus or minus," or "minus" according to whether the country was "progressive" or not in the given reign. Thus, for England under the Stuarts, he gives:

Ruler, Charles II —

Affable, witty, and debonair, but had no ambition. Sensual, dissipated, indolent, and extravagant.

Condition of Country, 1660-1685 +

Important constitutional and legal advance. Growth of the House of Commons. Increase in shipping, silk trade, and banking. . . .

He then compares the two columns to see how far a "plus monarch" is accompanied by a "plus condition of country," and vice-versa. His statistical conclusion is (p. 246):

Strong, mediocre, and weak monarchs are associated with strong, mediocre, and weak periods in about 70 per cent. of the cases. Strong monarchs are associated with weak periods, and weak monarchs (including non-royal regents) with strong periods in about 10 per cent. of the cases. In about 20 per cent. of the cases mediocre monarchs are associated with strong or with weak periods, or mediocre periods are associated with strong or weak monarchs.

Or, expressing the same thing more briefly in the neat mathematical formula which Karl Pearson has made familiar, Mr. Woods places the correlation between the intellectual strength of the ruler and the condition of the country at r=.60 to .70. This correlation is a high one in comparison with the general run of anthropometric and biometric results. It is greater than that expressing the bodily resemblances between parents and children (r=.30 to .50, according to Karl Pearson), or between children of the same parents (r=.40 to .60), except in the exceptional case of twins, where the correlation of resemblances is much higher (r=.80 to .90, according to E. L. Thorndike); in these formulas perfect correlation, that is, perfect equivalence or identity, is represented by unity (r=1.00), and total lack of correlation by zero (r=0).

The discovery of "this very high correlation between mentalities of rulers and the conditions of their realms" (p. 247), instead of rousing the author's suspicions and giving him pause, leads him to rush in with enthusiasm where historians fear to tread. As his philosophy of history he contends that (1) the above-mentioned correlation is understandable only on the supposition that the monarch causes the conditions (pp. 247-256); (2) that this is quite natural considering "that modern royalty as a whole has been decidedly superior to the average European in capacity," and that "the chances in favor of royalty [producing men of genius] is several hundred thousand times as great [as those in favor of the common breed of men]" (p. 264); (3) that this superiority of royalty is due to heredity: "royalty, as a result of selection and breeding, has gradually been formed into a distinct sub-variety of the human race,

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and this process of separation has been going on for centuries"; "there has been a genuine survival of the fittest within the ranks of royalty" (p. 272); and finally (4) that the sharp contrasts between successive good and bad, chaste and licentious, ambitious and indolent monarchs precisely fits in with the Mendelian theory that contrasted "alternative" "unit characteristics" become segregated and are transmitted through the germ-plasm of the germ-cells (gametes) on the "pure," "all or nothing," "present or absent" principle (pp. 269-279). "The true interpretation of history must hinge upon the gametes [of monarchs in the past or of other great men in the present or future], and the laws of history will be found to be but a part of the laws which govern organic life" (p. 303).

As to Mr. Woods's general method, it will have already occurred to the reader that the material on which his work is established is neither simple nor altogether satisfactory. Complex facts like a ruler's mentality or a country's condition do not allow themselves to be easily pigeonholed as +, —, or ±. Historians themselves are not in agreement. Opinions of the past are sometimes reversed by later researches. Adjectives such as "good," "cruel," "licentious," "progressive," which Mr. Woods finds in histories and encyclopædias and on which he bases his "adjective method" of rating, do not have the same precise objective meaning and measuring value as the metric measurements largely employed in anthropometry and biometry. More than this, the author does not appear to be as precise and consistent in his use of words as might be expected of one who places so much reliance on words. In his first chapter he says his rating of monarchs is according to their "intellectual qualities." "Moral traits are, as far as possible, left out of consideration while making up the classification for intellect" (p. 5). This is his theory. But in his practice he continually fails to distinguish carefully mentality, morality, and that *tertium quid* which is more or less dependent on the combination of the other two, viz., general ability.

As to the author's conclusions, we do not doubt (1) that there is some correlation between the mentality of a ruler and the condition of his country due to the ruler's influence. It is the obvious common-sense conclusion of any one who reads history. But that the amount of this influence has been, or can be, satisfactorily determined by the adjective method and expressed with such mathematical nicety (r=.60 to .70) we gravely doubt. (2) The idea that monarchs are so superior to the common breed of men rests in part on the false assumption that we have material on which to base such a comparison. Simply because of their office, monarchs have always had the limelight of history turned upon them, and whatever abilities they may have had have been recorded—for utilization by Mr. Woods. But no one has recorded the short and simple annals of the poor. Who knows how frequent have been the village Hampdens? In modern times, when the rise of democracy has somewhat diffused the limelight on others than monarchs, and somewhat afforded opportunities for the man of common breed to rise and show his ability as minister beside his monarch, that is, as soon as there does begin to be some basis for comparison, one is surprised at the mental superiority of the ministers over the monarchs. (3) Royalty is, indeed, largely a separate breed, owing to its rules of marriage, but it is not a selective breed within itself nor a result of the survival of the fittest. The breeder selects the best, but primogeniture selects the eldest. The breeder discards the inferior, but royalty mates nearly all its breed, good or bad, in order to secure the succession. In such a breeding system one would expect the breed to deteriorate and consequently tend to die out, which is, we believe, what has taken place. (4) The contrast between successive rulers is not, in fact, so sharp as the author's three-fold rating appears to make it. Nor are biologists agreed that mental ability is wholly determined by gametic inheritance; the influence of environment and education must certainly be taken into account. Experiments in Mendelism so far have dealt chiefly with external and easily analyzed characteristics, such as the color, size, and shape of parts of animals and plants, but not with the complex and elusive problem of mental characteristics. Mental qualities, such as quickness, indolence, cruelty, etc., are not necessarily qualities which correspond to heritable "unit characteristics."

While we cannot wholly endorse the author's method nor accept his conclusions, we strongly advise the historian to read this book; for he will be introduced to fascinating biological methods and theories applied in a field where he himself is familiar with the material and can use his own judgment as to what the experimenter is doing; it is not the usual unfamiliar biological field where the historian must take for granted what other people say they see through the microscope.

Agricultural progress in Canada is assured by the fact that the Government has appropriated $10,000,000 to cover a period of ten years for instruction and research in agriculture. The facilities and equipment of the agricultural colleges will be increased, and agricultural, dairy, and horticultural schools will be established, and agricultural teaching introduced into the public schools. The fund is to be distributed among the provinces according to population.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for September contains articles on the significance of palæographic studies, and on the high Cordilleras of the province of San Juan, Argentina. The future of the International Geographical Congress is discussed by a number of eminent geographers, including Prof. William M. Davis, of Harvard. In the military department the usefulness and extent of air flights in the colonial service are described, and the work of the Rumanian Military Geographical Institute.

Dr. Reginald Heber Fitz, emeritus professor at Harvard of the theory and practice of medicine, died last week in the Corey Hill Hospital, Brookline, Mass. Dr. Fitz was born at Chelsea, Mass., May 5, 1843; received the degree of A.B. from Harvard in 1864, M.D. in 1868, and LL.D. in 1905. He became instructor in pathological anatomy at Harvard in 1870; assistant professor in 1873; professor in 1878; Shattuck professor in 1879; Hersey professor in 1892, and emeritus in 1908. He was the author, with Dr. Horatio C. Wood, of "The Practice of Medicine." For Dr. Fitz it was claimed that an article he wrote in 1886 on what was then known as "perforating ulcer of the vermiform appendix" had much to do with the modern method of treating appendicitis.

Dr. François-Jules Ogier, toxicologist, is dead in Paris. He was born in 1853. Dr. Ogier was vice-president of the Chemical Society of France and a member of the Medical Society of New York. He was for a number of years director of the laboratory of toxicology of the Paris Police Department. A number of scientific treatises bear his name.

Drama

A new volume of "Lyrics and Dramas" from the hand of Stephen Phillips is brought out this week by John Lane Co.

The two most significant incidents of the beginning of the present theatrical season are the farewell engagement of Forbes-Robertson, in the Shubert Theatre, and the reappearance of Julia Marlowe and E. H. Sothern at the Manhattan Opera House. The programmes offered are in the main Shakespearean, and the houses, two of the most capacious in the city, have been filled from floor to roof at every performance. This fact is a sufficient refutation of the ancient pretence of the illiterate commercial managers that there is no longer any active public demand for the literary and poetic drama. The Hamlet of Forbes-Robertson, the most striking interpretation of the character since the days of Henry Irving and Edwin Booth, was received with genuine enthusiasm and a notably quick appreciation of its more subtle beauties. The impersonation—a little more elaborate in detail, perhaps, than of yore, but not materially changed—is too well known to require detailed description. Originality and intellectuality are its distinguishing features. It differs widely from the traditional conception of the part in its rapid, nervous movements, its free gesticulation, and its general suggestion of an alert and energetic spirit, only occasionally subject to fits of melancholy depression. In its

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carriage and action it fails to emphasize that introspective and speculative side of this extraordinarily complex character which accounts for his vacillation in enterprises of great pith and moment. This Hamlet might be expected actually to sweep to his revenge with wings as swift as meditation or the thoughts of love. But, on the other hand, there can be no question that the animation of manner, the rapid and eloquent changes of facial expression, and the illuminative by-play add greatly to the theatrical charm of the representation, while the delivery of the text, with its perfect clarity, scholarly emphasis, and nice observance of sense and rhythm, is an unfailing delight to the educated ear. Seldom is such elocution heard upon the stage to-day, and in Robertson's case the beauty of vocal art is enhanced by the richness of his organ. Listening to him, some of our younger actors might learn how integral a part of good acting is competent speech. The company which supports him is not brilliant, but the members of it have been well drilled and afford him adequate support. They are also equal, apparently, to the requirements of modern or artificial comedy, as was proved by their work in Madeleine Lucette Ryley's "Mice and Men," in which Gertrude Elliott displayed pleasing vivacity, humor, and sentiment in the conventional theatrical part of the metamorphosed charity girl Peggy. Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson played the part of the kindly old scholar, Mark Embury—whose matrimonial theories work out so unluckily for himself—with firm skill and feeling; but neither the play nor the character is really worthy of his abilities.

The luncheon given in London to F. R. Benson on the eve of his departure from England to begin his tour in Canada and the United States was a notable affair, in which many distinguished representatives of the church, literature, and the stage took part. The principal speech was delivered by Sir Sidney Lee. He proposed the health of Mr. Benson, "whose heroic, strenuous, and disinterested services to the drama had," he said, "placed him very high among his country's benefactors."

Cyril Maude seems to have made a fortunate find in the new play, "Grumpy," by Horace Hodges and Wigney Percival, which he has just produced in Glasgow. It is the story of a very old barrister whose wits are yet sharp enough to solve a criminal problem which has defied younger men.

Music

One of the most noteworthy books in the list of announcements of Thomas Y. Crowell Co. is a handsome edition of Wagner's "Parsifal," illustrated in color by Pogany.

At pretty regular intervals one reads in the morning paper a letter from Constant Reader or Old Subscriber complaining bitterly of the suffering caused by the mediæval abomination of the church bells. It is dreadful to imagine what would have happened to these supersensitives had they lived in Bethnal Green in 1868 and heard the bells of St. Matthew's "ring, in nine hours and twelve minutes, a peal of Kent treble bob major consisting of 15,840 changes," or at Dewsbury in Yorkshire, where four years later "a true peal of Kent treble bob major, consisting of no less than 16,608 changes, was rung in nine hours and fifty minutes." Mr. H. B. Walters, whose book on "Church Bells of England," published by the Oxford University Press (Frowde), is the authority for these extraordinary campanular performances, does not tell us what happened to the long-suffering populations of Bethnal Green and Dewsbury; but he has set forth a vast amount of other interesting information about English bells in a well-ordered and comprehensive treatise. Americans, who as a whole have almost no traditions and very little art or sentiment about bells, will be surprised at the importance and seriousness of the subject for Englishmen, and at the extent of its literature, the bibliography of which occupies twelve pages in Mr. Walters's book. The 384 pages of the text discuss the history of bells and bell-foundries, chiefly in England, technical processes of making, famous great bells, the uses of bells and ceremonies connected with them, the inscriptions upon them, the loss and destruction of bells, and campanology as a pursuit. The chapter on change-ringing will reveal to many astonished readers a most singular sport, quite unknown here, though practiced for two centuries in England, a sport for which, indeed, there exist several incorporated societies of quite venerable age. The combination of sentiment, mathematics, athletics, and noise which it involves is nowhere else to be found.

The scientific side of bell-design and the physical theories of bell-tones and of bell-hanging are not discussed. From the illustrations in the volume one gets an impression of English conservatism in the refusal to lower the trunnions of the yoke to a level anywhere near the centre of gravity, as is done with most American bells; it would be interesting to know whether this is due merely to tradition or to some theory of tone-production, as it inevitably increases greatly the strength required to swing or roll-over the bell. The book has good indexes and lists, and is well printed on very heavy plate paper. It forms one of a series on English churches and church fittings edited by Francis Bond, some of which have been reviewed in these columns.

Max Reger's new "Ballet Suite," which is to have its first performance in New York at a Philharmonic concert, is dedicated to the Philharmonic's conductor, Josef Stransky. That Mr. Stransky has also obtained Richard Strauss's latest piece, "A Festival Prelude," has already been stated. At the opening concert of the Philharmonic, on October 30, Berlioz's "Fantastic Symphony" will be on the programme, and Teresa Carreño will be the soloist. In addition to the novelties just named, the Philharmonic programmes will contain a new suite by Victor de Sabate; the Liszt Spanish Rhapsody orchestrated by Anton Seidl, which has not been performed since the death of Seidl fourteen years ago; "Scènes historiques," by Jean Sibelius (new); Heinrich Noren's "Kaleidoscope"; Rachmaninoff's Second Symphony to Dante's "Divina Commedia"; Tchaikovsky's "Manfred"; Haydn's "Military Symphony," and of the Beethoven Symphonies the "Eroica" and Nos. 6 and 8. Bach will be represented in the programmes by the "Brandenburger Concerto" No. 3 and the Bach-Abert Prelude, Choral, and Fugue.

Among the novelties to be performed by the New York Symphony Society this season is a series of tableaux symphoniques by Fanelli, based upon a novel, "La Momie," of Théophile Gautier. The series consists of three musical pictures which are called "Thebes: Before the Palace of Tahoser," "On the Nile," and the "Triumphal Return of Pharaoh." Fanelli is a composer of the modern French school whose works, so long neglected, have but recently been brought before the public, and have made an impression on some musicians. He is said to be a master of orchestration and of color and atmosphere in music.

The Brooklyn series of concerts by the New York Philharmonic Society will again consist of five Sunday afternoons—one each month beginning in November—at the Brooklyn Academy of Music. The opening concert will be given with an all-Wagner programme, which will be arranged in chronological order, including extracts from the master's earliest opera, "Rienzi," to "Parsifal." The assisting artists will include Mischa Elman, Teresa Carreño, and Julia Culp. At one of the concerts the patrons will have an opportunity to enjoy the work of several of the solo instruments of the orchestra. The programme of this concert will be arranged to bring forward as soloists several members of the wood-wind choir, and possibly the solo French horn, Xaver Reiter.

Eight years ago attempts were made in Heidelberg to set the fashion of listening to music in a darkened concert hall. The arguments of the promoters of this plan were to the effect that the auditors would listen to the music with greater concentration if all external impressions were removed. "This was all very well in theory, but in practice it was found that the very opposite result was attained," writes Arthur M. Abell in the *Musical Courier*. "I was present at one of those concerts in Heidelberg, and many persons in the audience testified that the darkness and absence of all attraction for the eye made them drowsy, with the result that they listened to the music with much less attention than under ordinary conditions."

Novelties are to be tabooed by the London Symphony Orchestra, which has issued the following notice: "It has been found necessary to omit from the programmes all other than standard works, as it has been proved by experience that the public support is withdrawn on the occasions when new and unknown works are performed at the concerts, and it is the general wish of the supporters of the concerts to include only works of the standard order."

Paderewski this week has returned after an absence of four years to make an all-season's tour of this country under the direction of C. A. Ellis, of Boston. So far as the greater part of the country is concerned, it will be his first tour in five years. Mr. Paderewski's plans call for between eighty and ninety concerts, and he will be in America until the latter part of April.

Elgar's "Falstaff," one of the orchestral novelties of this season, is analyzed by the composer himself at great length (nine

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columns) with abundant illustrations in musical type, in the September number of the London *Musical Times*.

Art

To the "Reminiscences of Augustus Saint-Gaudens," in two royal octavo volumes, which the Century Company issues this week, Mr. Homer Saint-Gaudens has added a considerable amount of the sculptor's correspondence with prominent men.

To the useful series French Artists of Our Day (Lippincott) is added "Gustave Courbet," comprising forty-eight cuts, a brief critical introduction by Léonce Bénédite, and running notes by J. Laran and Ph. Gaston Dreyfus. These notes give a good selection from contemporary criticism and sufficiently recall the controversies which ever accompanied Courbet's stormy course. Since the whole conception of these little volumes is so excellent, it is a pity that the plates are often blurred, as if printed from worn or overinked blocks.

"A Handbook of Modern French Sculpture" (Dodd, Mead), by D. Cady Eaton, is something between a compact dictionary and a collection of critical opinions. In general, the work is done with good sense and taste, and where the author lets himself go, as in the appreciation of Carpeaux, the text is very readable. Hegel's criticism figures largely and cloudily in the preface and appendix. The survey ends with Rodin, a chapter which unfortunately the author was unable to finish. Far too many brief sections on unimportant artists are included. For such minutiæ the special student will naturally consult French encyclopædic works, and the layman may well dispense with such information. Since the field is swept so fully, that exquisite draftsman, Jean Carriès, should not have been ignored. There is a useful list of the works of sculpture on the Opera and the Grand and Petit Palais. The book shows close study of the topic, but the author reveals little knowledge of sculpture in general; hence his work is deficient in sidelights and critical analogies.

Sir Aurel Stein has been deputed by the Indian Government to resume his archæological and geographical explorations in Central Asia and westernmost China, the results of which he published in "Ruins of Desert Cathay." In his journey to the Pamirs he will pass through territories which have not been previously visited by a European.

Numerous small excavations have been carried on in Greece during the past season. At Athens the Greek Archæological Society has excavated on the Pnyx in order to discover the extent and construction of the containing wall east of the Bema. In Bœotia M. Soteriadis has continued his prehistoric excavations in the neighborhood of Chæroneia. In Crete M. Hazidakis has continued, with excellent results, his excavation of the prehistoric Cretan town, of Late Minoan date, at Tylissos, near Candia. Sir Arthur Evans has conducted several small excavations in the Palace of Knossos to test his earlier conclusions, and the British School has completely cleared the Kamares Cave on Mount Ida, in which had previously been found the deposit of Middle Minoan pottery from which the so-called "Kamares Ware" derived its name.

Finance

THE BANKERS' CONVENTION AND THE BANKING BILL.

The annual Convention of the American Bankers' Association opened at Boston on Wednesday morning. It assembled at an unusually interesting moment; for the new banking and currency bill, having passed the House of Representatives, is now in the hands of the Senate Committee, whence it will in due course be reported to the Senate with such alterations as the Committee may decide upon. Formal discussion of the measure by the bankers has been largely based, on this occasion, on the report of the currency committee appointed by the last Convention. That report was framed and published at the conference of the committee, on August 22 and 23, with representatives of the State bankers' associations and clearing house associations. It recommended numerous changes in the House banking bill as it stood at that time.

Some of these recommendations, such as reduction in the reserves as originally stipulated for individual banks in the national system, have subsequently been adopted by the House and incorporated in its bill. Others, and the greater number, have not been thus adopted. These other proposed alterations are naturally the focus of this week's Convention discussion.

The main objections of the bankers' currency committee to the present bill were these: Membership of existing national banks in the new banking system should be permissive, not mandatory. The National Board of Supervision, known in the Act as the Federal Reserve Board, should consist, not of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Controller of the Currency, and four other members chosen by the President of the United States, but of the Secretary of the Treasury, three members named by the President, and three chosen by the regional reserve banks. The power conferred by the bill on the Federal Board, of requiring one regional bank to rediscount paper held by another, was objected to; permissive power only was recommended.

All references to the note issues as obligations of the United States were opposed. Instead of conditioning such issues on application by the regional bank to the Federal Reserve Board, on the consent or veto of such application by that national board, and on payment of such "rate of interest" on the note issues as the Board shall require, the bankers' committee proposed that "any Federal reserve bank, upon vote of its directors, and within a limit prescribed by the Federal Reserve Board, may issue such amount of the notes hereinbefore provided for as it may deem best." Instead of the bill's requirement that a reserve of 33 1-3 per cent. shall be carried, in gold or lawful money, against the note issues of any regional bank, it is proposed that a 40 per cent. reserve of gold alone be maintained, without tax upon the notes; but that when such reserve falls below this ratio, a progressive tax rising to 4½ per cent. shall be imposed, and that no further issues shall be permitted when the reserve is down to 33 1-3 per cent.

It will be observed that these criticisms converged on two separate lines—the wisdom of certain existing provisions from an administrative point of view, and the wisdom of others from an economic point of view. The first has chiefly to do with the composition of the Federal Reserve Board; whether it shall consist wholly of Administration officers and Administration appointees, or whether three of the seven members shall be named by the regional banks.

The bankers' conference committee did not propose, as did the Aldrich plan, a majority of bankers or banking representatives in the Board; therefore their argument rests mainly on the contention that the banks in the system ought not to be dominated, so far as regards the national supervision, by a body exclusively made up of political appointees. The House bill has endeavored to meet this argument by creating a Federal advisory council, with one representative from each regional bank, having the power of conferring at any time with the Federal Board and of calling for information, but not the power of overruling decisions of the Board. All this raises the interesting question, which of the two expedients would be the surer protection against possible evils of political domination—a minority in the Federal Board itself, or an advisory body with distinct official powers of recommendation and criticism.

Mandatory membership of national banks in the proposed new system was objected to as an infringement on the charter rights of existing banks. This is to some extent offset by the power of national banks to reorganize under a State system—a power handicapped, however, by their holdings of United States bonds which, after such reorganization, would no longer be available for purposes of note issue. The chairman of the Senate Committee has intimated his willingness to make the membership permissive. This phase of the question is one of the most delicate of all; for the Government is naturally as anxious not to risk the failure of its plan through unwillingness of banks,

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their shareholders, and their depositors, to participate, as the banks could be not to risk the complications of an ill-judged system.

The bankers are absolutely sound in their objection to the language describing the notes as obligations of the Government. These are not Government issues, even when judged by the provisions of the House bill, and it is both misleading and mischievous so to describe them. The provision for an arbitrary tax on such circulation, which the bill calls a "rate of interest," is in principle wholly objectionable. Both paragraphs are admittedly in the nature of compromise with the ideas of radicals, who are placated by language which, by inference at all events, says what it does not mean. The fact remains, however, that the general provisions of the pending bill, for insuring the soundness, elasticity, and prompt redemption of the notes, are thoroughly good, and a vast improvement on the Aldrich plan. The respective merits of the fixed ratio of reserve against the notes, in the House bill, and the elastic ratio with a non-taxable minimum in the bankers' proposed alternative, are a legitimate matter for discussion.

The question whether the Federal Board, however constituted, should have power to require one regional bank to discount paper for another is unquestionably difficult. Mr. Paul Warburg, writing on the bill in the current *North American Review*, takes the ground that such power is inevitable, if the harmonious working of the entire structure is to be insured; yet he also holds that arbitrary and unrestricted authority of that nature would be fatal to the existence of a free and natural open discount market throughout the country. Certainly the real crux of controversy lies less in the composition of the Federal Board (granting the Government's supremacy) than in the nature and judicious limitation of its powers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, John Quincy. Writings. Ed. by W. C. Ford. Vol. II. Macmillan. $3.50 net.

American Jewish Year Book, 1913-14. Philadelphia: Jewish Pub. Society of Am.

Ames, Charles Gordon. A Spiritual Autobiography. Ed. by Alice Ames Winter. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.

Austin, Sarah. The Story Without an End. Duffield.

Bailey, H. C. The Sea Captain. Doran. $1.25 net.

Barnard, W. G. Regulation. Seattle: Regulation Pub. Co. $1.

Batten, L. W. *Books of Ezra and Nehemiah* (Inter. Critical Commentary). Scribner. $3 net.

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Blanchard, Grace. Phillida's Glad Year. Boston: Wilde. $1 net.

Bordeaux, Henry. Footprints Beneath the Snow. Trans. by M. S. Houghton. Duffield. $1.25 net.

Bower, B. M. The Gringos. Boston: Little, Brown. $1.25 net.

Brereton, C. Studies in Foreign Education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.60.

Bryant, R. C. Ruth Anne. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25 net.

Cambridge Medieval History. Vol. II. Macmillan. $5 net.

Camp, Walter. Danny Fists. D. Appleton. $1.35 net.

Canadian Society of New York. Year Book, 1913.

Cannan, Gilbert. The Joy of the Theatre. (Fellowship series.) Dutton. 75 cents net.

Castle, W. E., and Little, C. C. Reversion in Guinea-Pigs; Studies of the Inheritance of Color in Mice. Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Chester, G. R. Wallingford & Blackie Daw. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. $1 net.

Children's Book of Christmas Stories. Edited by A. D. Dickinson and A. M. Skinner. Doubleday. $1.25 net.

Cortissoz, Royal. Art and Common Sense. Scribner. $1.75 net.

Croce, Benedetto. Philosophy of the Practical. Translated by Douglas Ainslie. Macmillan. $3.25.

D'Auvergne, E. B. The Light Side of London. Clode. $1.25 net.

Deland, Margaret. Partners. Harper. $1 net.

Dickinson, Charles Henry. The Christian Reconstruction of Modern Life. Macmillan. $1.50 net.

Dunoyer, A. The Public Prosecutor of the Terror, Fouquier-Tinville. Translated from the French by A. W. Evans. Putnam. $3.75 net.

Eaton, W. P. The Boy Scouts of the Dismal Swamp. Boston: Wilde. $1 net.

Eggleston, J. D., and Bruère, R. W. The Work of the Rural School. Harper. $1.

Farnsworth, W. O. Uncle and Nephew in the Old French Chansons de Geste. Col. Univ. Press (Lemcke & Buechner). $1.50 net.

Findlater, Mary. A Narrow Way. Dutton $1.35 net.

Fish, C. R. The Development of American Nationality. American Book Co.

Fitzhugh, Percy K. For Uncle Sam, Boss. Crowell. $1.25.

Fraser, Donald. Winning a Primitive People. Dutton. $1.50 net.

Frazer, J. G. The Golden Bough. Part VI, The Scapegoat. 3rd Ed. Macmillan. $3.

Frost, A. B. Carlo. Doubleday.

Frost, W. A. The Man Between. Doubleday. $1.25 net.

Furman, Lucy. Mothering on Perilous. Macmillan. $1.50 net.

Gaskell's (Mrs.) Wives and Daughters. Illustrated by M. V. Wheelhouse. Dodd, Mead. $1.50 net.

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Jones, H. C., and others. The Freezing-Point Lowering, Conductivity, and Viscosity of Solutions of Certain Electrolytes. Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Kellicott, William E. A Textbook of General Embryology. Holt.

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Kinglake's Eöthen. Illustrated by Frank Brangwyn. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

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